

The Citizen

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Life and Education.

PROBABLY no political campaign, ever endured by this country, has been more full of instruction for persons taking the trouble to think than this of 1896. We are suddenly forced to decide by popular vote a matter of economic policy, with which Congress has played, without despatching it, for nearly twenty years. Every man Jack of us is expected to express his will in the decision of this question, so difficult to understand thoroughly without knowledge not easily acquired, and an intelligence above that of the average Senator. More than at any time in

our history is it important to be able and to be disposed to discriminate between what is honest, and dishonesty enveloped in specious and sophistical talk. Then we are called upon to consider a social "problem" arising from the declarations of the silver advocates that the interests of the mass of the people in the quality of our money are opposed to the interests of persons owning disposable capital. The commotion of the last three months has been properly called a campaign of education. But, when the decision is rendered on the third of November, even if Mr. McKinley is triumphantly elected, we shall not have learned all the lessons of the occasion. If we are wise, we may find more instruction in the retrospect than from watching while the battle is on. After the vote is cast, we shall have time, if so disposed, to inquire why it was necessary to pass through such an ordeal and how it came about that we should be threatened with a change in our fiscal policy which, according to most men having a knowledge of finance, either as students or as men of affairs, would introduce, were it carried into effect, such uncertainties into every business relation as would probably bring trade and industry to a condition of anarchy and fix upon us the rank disgrace of repudiation of national indebtedness. We wish to understand, too, why we are obliged to reckon with this tendency on the part of the poor to accept the idea that they as a class have a grievance against the well-to-do.

It is American doctrine, having its sanction in experience, that no one with good health, good character, and brains, is shut out from opportunity to make a generous living or a fortune by the fact that he was born poor. The men who have been most successful in acquiring wealth have not, as a rule, had expensive educations or capital with which to start in business. The public schools, their own energies and native powers, have furnished their equipment. The ranks of the rich are constantly recruited from the children

of poor parents, and depleted by the falling out of the inheritors of money who have failed to keep it. There are people whose impressive opulence is owing to an ancestor who began in a no larger way of business than the founder of the house of VanKooover in Mr. Mitchell's clever story, 'Amos Judd,' "who, four generations ago, was peddling knickknacks along the Bowery;" and there are women, the product of a century or more of ease and careful education, whose present exiguous incomes are earned by the work of their hands. It is denied to no man to better his condition, and no one can be sure of keeping what he has. With exceptions not really worth taking into account, we must all work if we would live; and the average working-man—rich or poor—is ready to take his chance, in a fair field, to better himself if he can, and to concede to others the rights he claims. But, unfortunately, in the race to "get on" the combination of health, brains, and good character is not the only one that wins. With our great gifts from nature and our rapid growth, there have been unquestionably abundant opportunities for legitimate accumulation; on the other hand, the same quick expansion, and the rise of new conditions have afforded extraordinary occasions for reckless ventures, disturbing to the public sense of true values; and for money-getting by methods which it would be cruel and scandalous to exhibit in plain print. The impression prevails that the able and unscrupulous man is getting too large a share; and, if we are not mistaken, it is this feeling which is at the bottom of any discontent that can be successfully appealed to in an attempt at repudiation or a crusade against wealth. When dishonesty and trickery become too conspicuous in the conduct of business and politics, and it appears that the game is not fairly played, the idea of association between wealth and unfair or dishonest means of acquiring it grows in the popular mind to the belief, now not uncommon, that no great fortune is honestly come by; the spirit of self-reliance is impaired; there is discouragement, confusion of mind as to justice, and a disposition to seek relief in "striking at the money power" by any means that may happen to be suggested.

It is well to remember that our big jury of 14,000,000 voters is called upon from time to time to give verdicts in cases where even experts are at a loss, or at all events disagree, and that our only hope for justice lies in a high average of common sense, good temper, and honesty. If the people get it into their heads that wealth comes not by industry, thrift, and foresight, but by speculation, act of legislature, "getting in on the ground floor," and borrowing at ten per cent; if they are continually exasperated by the tergiversations of political ring-masters, and led to believe that the eighth and tenth commandments are ludicrously archaic for application to modern business, we are certain every few years to have our spasms of anxiety. It would seem as if the time had come for every conscientious man to ask himself if we, or if even he, can afford to condone or wink at any act or practice which tends to lower the popular ideals as to the value and meaning of honesty. Is it well in the long run for men who respect integrity and prefer to be personally upright to find excuses, in their responsibilities to others or to large interests, or in apparent political or commercial necessities, for doing or allowing to be done anything that in itself is essentially dishonest? If it is just to attribute, even in part, the shrunken incomes and diminishing fortunes of the last few years to the menace of the free coinage of silver and the populist sentiment, is it not pertinent to inquire how far acquiescence in a low standard of integrity has been responsible for these losses? To acquire wealth, useful and pleasant as it is, is not, after all, the sum of happiness, any more than are figures the only expression of progress. To live in a peaceable, law-abiding, and God-fearing community, to be able to trust your neighbor, and to be conscious of a right to claim his respect are privileges not to be despised. It is not the United States alone, but the modern world of industry and commerce, that needs to learn that a high standard of integrity prevailing in the relations between man and man is the only guarantee of stability and security, and that we cannot afford to take the hazards of a general smash that we may seize the profits of immediate and venal

opportunities. This country has, however, a greater stake in moral progress than others. We are committed to Democracy; other forms of government are too alien to our experience to be thought of; and we shall have a Democracy and a government corresponding to the character of the people. Whatever the result of the present election, the apprehensions and actual suffering which preceded it might alone suggest to a candid mind the suspicion that sooner or later nations as well as individuals have got to take their discipline whether they learn from it or not.

Among the new books now out or announced for early publication there are not a few of considerable interest for the general reader. To begin with novels—which may as well come first here, even if their relation to reading should be that of a salad to a dinner,—the admirers of Sienkiewicz have to congratulate themselves upon the appearance of 'Quo Vadis,' translated by Mr. Jeremiah Curtin, to whom English readers are indebted for other translations from the same author. This is not the place to dwell upon the genius of the great Polish novelist or the excellent work of his interpreter. It is enough to say to people who have come to know the inimitable Zagloba and his friends in 'With Fire and Sword,' 'The Deluge,' and 'Pan Michael,' or to readers of 'Without Dogma,' that 'Quo Vadis' is a story of "the conflict of moral ideas with the Roman Empire," and that Mr. Curtin expresses the opinion in his preface that it will attract more attention at first than anything hitherto written by this author. A letter in a recent number of *The Nation* says that Sienkiewicz, who lives much at Zakopane, Galicia, is now at work upon "a novel whose scene is laid in the beginning of the fifteenth century, at the time of the decisive struggle between the Poles and the German order of the Teutonic Knights." 'Quo Vadis' is published by Little, Brown, & Co.

In 'Sir George Tressady' Mrs. Humphrey Ward gives us more of Marcella—two volumes more—with the same literary skill, the same suggestive but inconclusive handling of social

relations in modern England. The book is published by The Macmillan Company, who are also to bring out 'Taquisara' by Marion Crawford and 'The Other House' by Henry James. In spite of the opinion that easy writing is "curst hard reading" Mr. Crawford's novels, which must be written without great difficulty, to judge from the rapidity with which they come tumbling over each other from the press, are nearly always easy and pleasant reading. We shall not venture to comment on Mr. James's style. If he is not always easy to read, he is dear to those who feel competent to talk of his art. He has another novel, 'The Spoils of Pynton,' in the hands of Houghton, Mifflin, & Co., and H. S. Stone & Co. will print his 'What Massie Knew.' Recent work of the Scotch novelists is represented by 'Sentimental Tommy' and 'Margaret Ogilvy,' both by Barrie, and published by Charles Scribner's Sons; 'The Gray Man' by Crockett (Harper & Brothers); and 'Kate Carnegie' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) by Ian Maclaren, who, as the Rev. John Watson, is now in the United States for the delivery of a course of lectures before the Yale Theological School, and for travel and lecturing elsewhere through the country. He can be seen in various aspects, other than those revealed by his writings, in the October *Review of Reviews*. Mr. Barrie, by the way, is also paying a visit to America. Conan Doyle's new novel is 'Rodney Stone' (D. Appleton & Co.); Sir Walter Besant's is 'The City of Refuge' (F. A. Stone & Co.); Anthony Hope's 'Phroso' is announced by Frederick A. Stokes. During the year we have published a series of papers on some of the older novelists, whose books might well have more attention from readers than they now receive. People who remember 'Friends in Council' and 'Realmah' will be glad to know that The Macmillan Company is to publish a new edition of Arthur Helps. Roberts Brothers have published 'In Scarlet and Grey,' by Thomas Hardy and Florence Henniker.

In *Essays and Studies in Literature*, we note: 'English Studies,' by James Darmesteter, London (T. Fisher Unwin); 'Aspects of

Fiction,' by Brander Matthews, and 'The Relation of Literature to Life,' by Charles Dudley Warner, both published by Harper & Brothers; 'Essays on Books and Culture,' by Hamilton W. Mabie (Dodd, Mead, & Co.); 'Victorian Influences,' by Frederick Harrison (The Macmillan Company); 'Whitman, a Study,' by John Burrows (Houghton, Mifflin, & Co.). Dodd, Mead, & Co. will publish 250 copies of a new volume of essays by Austin Dobson, at five dollars a copy, and The Macmillan Company are to publish a new and revised edition of 'English Literature,' by Rev. Stopford A. Brooke. Harper Brothers have in hand a volume by Woodrow Wilson, called 'Mere Literature and Other Essays.' G. P. Putnam's Sons publish 'The Literary Movement in France during the Nineteenth Century,' by Georges Pellissier. Mr. Henry S. Pancoast's 'English Literature' has been revised and enlarged by the author, and published by Henry Holt & Co.

Chief among the memoirs and biographies is Mr. Andrew Lang's 'John Gibson Lockhart,' which is published by Charles Scribner's Sons in two large octavo volumes, handsome as to paper and typography, and illustrated with some interesting drawings by Lockhart's own hand. In this connection we may call attention to a new edition of Lockhart's 'Life of Sir Walter Scott,' in two volumes, which Crowell will shortly publish. Mary Cowden Clarke's 'My Long Life' contains many personal reminiscences and interesting notes about the literary men of this century. It is published by Dodd, Mead, & Co., as is 'The Story of My Life,' by J. C. Augustus Hare, and 'Charlotte Brontë and her Circle,' by Clement K. Shorter. Houghton, Mifflin, & Co. have in press Mrs. Rose Hawthorne Lathrop's 'Some Memoirs of Hawthorne.' Charles Scribner's Sons have added another volume to the series of *The Great Educators*, 'Thomas Arnold and the Contemporary Educational Movement.' Among the importations of this firm are 'The Life of Lawrence Sterne,' in two volumes, by Percy Fitzgerald, and Arthur Waugh's edition of Dr. Johnson's 'Lives of the Poets,' in six volumes.

In History we can mention in this place only a few of the new publications. Professor Woodrow Wilson's papers on George Washington, which have been appearing in *Harper's Magazine*, the publishers will now bring out in book form. Besides his attainments as a scholar, Professor Wilson has a command of English which gives a peculiar value to anything he writes, as it is one of the elements of the charm of his lectures. Harper & Brothers are publishing Poultney Bigelow's 'History of the German Struggle for Liberty,' which has already appeared in their *Magazine*. The Macmillan Company are issuing a translation by A. J. Butler of the second edition of Friedrich Ratzel's 'The History of Mankind.' This book is profusely and admirably illustrated, and will be complete in three large octavo volumes, only one of which is now out. 'The Story of the Last Quarter Century in the United States,' by E. Benjamin Andrews, in two volumes, comes from the press of Charles Scribner's Sons. The same firm is issuing Thatcher and Schwill's 'Europe in the Middle Ages,' and is importing W. M. Flinders Petrie's 'A History of Egypt during the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Dynasties.' In this connection we may mention Mahaffy's 'Empire of the Ptolemys,' published by Macmillan earlier in the year. This is a much more carefully prepared and better written book than Professor Mahaffy's 'A Survey of Greek Civilization,' written for the Chautauqua Reading Circle. The interest of the period of the Ptolemies, with their possession of a still unspoiled Egypt, and of Greek culture as it was centralized at Alexandria, is sufficient to inspire a much duller writer than Mahaffy. The Indian mutiny seems to be an inexhaustible theme. Besides the accounts of the serious histories, it has been dealt with in novels and verse, and made vivid in such personal recitals as those of Lady Ingless's 'The Siege of Lucknow,' and Forbes Mitchell's 'Reminiscences of the Great Mutiny.' We are now promised 'The Story of the Indian Mutiny,' by Ascott R. Hope, published by F. Warne & Co.

The Macmillan Company promise 'Guesses at the Riddle of Existence' by Goldwin Smith. Professor Smith has very dark views of life in

the United States, to judge from his letter in *The Saturday Review* of July 25. We trust his book may be less depressing. The same publishers have brought out 'An Outline of Psychology,' by Professor Edward B. Titchener, of Cornell. 'The Sense of Beauty,' being the outlines of æsthetic theory, by George Santayana of Harvard, is published by Charles Scribner's Sons. The estimable Swâmi Vivekânanda, who came as a representative from India to the World's Fair Congress of Religions, has published through Longmans, Green, & Co., his lectures on Râja Loga, which were delivered in New York last winter. If a man requires five million years to become perfect, and it is possible, as is suggested on page 43, that, with sufficient effort, the thing can be done in six months or six years, there should be considerable interest in a book which tells how the Yogi shortens the time.

Bryce's 'The American Commonwealth' has been revised and abridged by its author, in collaboration with Professor Jesse Macy, and is published by The Macmillan Company, who also publish Professor Macy's 'Text Book on the English Constitution,' 'A Political History of England,' by Goldwin Smith, and Sir Frederick Pollock's 'A First Book of Jurisprudence,' which is said to be not only a book of value to students of law but intelligible and interesting to laymen. The Century Company will shortly give us Hon. James Bryce's 'Impressions of South Africa.' Two notable books of scientific interest are 'The Earth and its Story,' by Angelo Heilprin (Silver Burdett, & Co.) and Professor N. S. Shaler's 'American Highways' (The Century Company). It would be difficult to name an American of equal standing among scientific men, who has done so much for the instruction and the delight of the great public as Professor Shaler. Men like Huxley, Tyndall, Young, and the editor of 'The United States of America,' belong in the broadest sense among the "great educators." We have already mentioned the Rev. Stopford A. Brooke's 'English Literature.' Dodd, Mead, & Co. are publishing his 'The Old Testament and Modern Life' which will be heartily welcomed by those who know the author's

sermons. Mr. Brooke will also furnish a preface to 'The Book of Ruth,' printed by the same publishers. A revised edition of Professor Charles A. Briggs's 'The Higher Criticism of the Hexateuch,' with important additions may be expected from the press of Charles Scribner's Sons.

In poetry, art, and music, we note the following: *Poetry*:—'The Seven Seas,' by Rudyard Kipling (D. Appleton & Co.); a third volume of Emily Dickinson's Poems (Roberts Brothers); 'Ballads and Lyrics of Old France,' by Andrew Lang (Thomas B. Mosher); 'A New Anthology of the Minor Poets,' J. Churton Collins (Edward Arnold); 'Lyrics,' by John B. Tabb (Copeland & Day); 'A Child World,' by James W. Riley (Bowen, Merrill Co.); 'More Songs from Vagabondia,' by Bliss Carmen and Richard Hovey (Copeland & Day); 'Judith and Holofernes,' by T. B. Aldrich (Houghton, Mifflin, & Co.); 'A Quiet Road,' by Lizette W. Reese (Houghton, Mifflin, & Co.). *Art*:—'European Architecture,' a Historical Study, by Russell Sturgis (The Macmillan Company); 'A History of Sculpture,' by Allan Marquand and A. L. Frothingham, Jr., (Longmans, Green, & Co.); 'The History of Modern Painting,' by Richard Muther (The Macmillan Co.). A new illustrated octavo edition of Vasari's 'Lives of the Painters,' edited and annotated by E. H. and E. W. Blashfield and A. A. Hopkins, and published by Charles Scribner's Sons, will appear in four elegant volumes, containing forty-eight photo-gravure reproductions of Italian painting and sculpture, and will be limited to five hundred copies for America. *Music*:—'The Music of the Modern World,' by Anton Seidl (Appleton & Co.); 'Annals of Music in Philadelphia and History of the Musical Fund Society,' by Louis C. Madeira, edited by Philip H. Goepf (J. B. Lippincott Company). Whether or not 'A Second Century of Charades,' by William Bellamy (Houghton, Mifflin, & Co.) may be called poetry, there is no doubt about the art displayed in these ingenious compositions, which are commended to those who enjoy the peculiar sort of mental exercise afforded by guessing charades. That many people do would seem to be proved by the success of Mr. Bellamy's first Century.

The College in Relation to the University.

The germ of the modern university was the learned man and a group of students. As foreshadowing the great institutions of modern times, one thinks of the schools of Isocrates and Plato at Athens and of the Museum at Alexandria. So, too, one recalls the six hundred Saxon pupils who before the days of Alfred gathered about the venerable Baeda, in whom the students found at once instructor, text-book, library, trustee, overseer, corporation—in a word—the university itself. Fancy can follow the possible stages of progress from this unincorporated group of pupils. It can easily be supposed that such a company, numbering in some cases thousands, themselves undisciplined, and in towns not too well governed, would be exposed to various rude interruptions, encounters, and annoyances. Town and gown would from the first be at war. The body of students would migrate from the place where they were too much annoyed. No sooner would they be gone, however, than their loss would be seriously felt and they would be asked to return. Now they could dictate terms. They could exact the promise of certain immunities and they could demand concessions as to places for study and lodging. Halls, inns, hostels would spring up. Small societies would be formed by students who desired the services of some teacher in common, and such a society, occupying one house together, would form the basis of a college, surrounded by other colleges having a like origin.

Something like this seems actually to have occurred. If we may set aside as untrustworthy the legendary accounts of the founding of the University of Paris by Charlemagne and of the University of Oxford by Alfred, it appears that the beginnings of neither of these ancient schools can be traced further back than the early years of the twelfth century. We are not, however, to think of the universities, or even the great gatherings of students about one teacher, as arising directly out of a barbarous and wholly unlettered society. The antecedents of the universities are to be found in those schools which had long been carried on in connection with the monasteries and the cathedrals. These schools had, however, none of the aims and none of the character of universities. The scope of their teaching was, for the most part, Scripture truth and the writings of the fathers. For a long time there was nothing of literature, science, or philosophy. All the teaching had for its end the service of the church, and the teaching and the service were narrowly conceived.

But, with the changes that came over the social condition of Europe, with the growth of cities, the increase of the wealth and independence of the people, and the quickening of intellectual life that marked the later middle centuries, came a new demand for learning. The schools under this impulse were broadened and liberalized. Designed at first to train churchmen, they soon began to admit laymen, noble, and other. They extended their scope. No longer confining themselves to the teachings of the fathers, they gave instruction in grammar, rhetoric, and logic—the group of studies that constituted the ancient *trivium*;—and probably they sometimes went further, and carried the student into or through the *quadrivium* also, teaching him arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, music. But they kept safely within the bounds. They were, to use a modern phrase, of secondary grade. They were not consciously working toward the university, though they were its direct antecedents.

Now, if we imagine a really great and original teacher in one of these schools, a man attracting thousands of these hungry students, we have at once the conditions that led to the university. Such a teacher, it turned out, was Peter Abelard. In 1057 he came as a pupil to the school attached to the cathedral of Notre Dame, at Paris. But shortly he eclipsed the reputation of his master and drew away his pupils. Hated by his master, persecuted for his teachings, and admired for his brilliancy, Abelard fled, drawing multitudes of students with him wherever he went. "He taught," we are told, "in (an inn) attached to the monastery of St. Denis," and it is said that his students numbered at one time three thousand, and included youths from all parts of Europe. "The jealousy of the doctors of the Paris school," continues the historian, "and the suspicion of heresy under which Abelard fell, ultimately forced him to take refuge in Champagne, where he built a hut in a desert place. But he was not allowed to remain and nurse his melancholy in solitude. Students again began to crowd round him and, erecting tents and mud huts covered with thatch, they prosecuted their studies in the wilds, contenting themselves with the simplest rustic fare." Here we have the infant University of Paris in the forests of France. Returning to Paris, and reconciling himself with his opponents, Abelard continued his lectures and moulded by his influence some of the most distinguished men of the age. Paris became almost immediately another Athens. The number of students is said to have reached 30,000 and to have exceeded that of the citizens.

One can easily perceive that with the rise of such activities as these, we pass beyond the stage and the scope of the monastic schools; we are at once "out in the open," and while no one yet even dreamed consciously of the new development, it had begun. From the beginning of the twelfth century, and from William of Champeaux and his pupil Abelard, the ancient University of Paris deduces the regular succession of its teachers. Indeed, in Abelard and his disciples, appears the real beginning of perhaps the most ancient university—the University of Paris.

But as yet there was no university—that is, no community conscious of itself and living under general rules. Here was only a vast throng of rude, undisciplined, and, in many cases, licentious and riotous students. The poverty of many was extreme and pitiable. But in them was the thirst for knowledge. Necessity compelled some sort of unification of this mass; not only the demands of daily life and study enforced this, but self-defence required it. To the great centre came students from every quarter of the world. What more natural than that they should group themselves, for convenience and for protection, according to nationality? This in fact they did, and we find at Paris, even so soon as "about the time of Abelard's death, that the large and ever increasing concourse of students . . . were led to this division into 'Nations,' for purposes of mutual intercourse and protection." The whole mass thus fell into four of these groups, *The Picard, The Norman, The French, The English*.

One can see how naturally and inevitably this came about, and particular interest attaches to it, because this first obvious classification was the first step toward the evolution of the university out of this protoplasmic, unorganized mass. Yet no one was consciously creating the university. The crowd was simply feeling its way to the most practicable *modus vivendi ac studendi*. The crowd was not working at evolution; it was only seeking immediate convenience.

The situation was comparatively simple. Picture it! "Distinguished teachers," says Dr. Laurie, "have drawn around them from every part of Europe thousands of ardent pupils. These are supposed to be all working to obtain some learned or professional qualification, and they move among each other in a spirit of great freedom, and animated by a common purpose. Buildings and laboratories do not exist. The masters . . . teach where they can—generally in their own houses or hired rooms, or sometimes . . . in lodging houses. . . . The students lead an almost uncontrolled life, which too often tends to be-

come a licentious and lawless one. Some sort of organization is manifestly needed, especially as the numbers increase. The students coming from the same quarter naturally stand together, and, by the help of the masters of the same nationality, constitute societies or nations, and at once proceed to elect their own chief." Sub-divisions arise. Each sub-division elects its own dean and keeps its own money-chest. Each nation, with its rector and deans, is an independent body, enacting its own rules and exercising authority over the lodging-house of its members. Each of these organizations is a "Universitas"—that is, a collective unity,—a community. The mass is now organized. It consists now of free, self-governing societies, and the union of these organizations, the community of teachers and scholars is conceived and known as the *Universitas*.

It is important to note just at this point, that this was precisely the denotation of the term "University" as first used. It carried no implication of universality in the scope of teaching. It meant only a collective unity, a community of teachers and pupils, a community living under general rules a *oneness*. This was no new use of the word. A town, regarded as an organized body, was often called an *universitas*, and even a trade guild or corporation was so termed. A university was simply and only a community, and, only after the course of time, it came to mean chiefly a learned community.

This grouping of the "nations," and the conception of them as forming one collective unity, an *Universitas*, was followed almost immediately by a second step in organization: the rise of the colleges within the university. Simply, obviously, inevitably, this also came to pass. Poverty, convenience, the desire for the services of some one teacher, natural selection of some sort, caused groups of students to take separate buildings or halls for a common living place. They were not thinking of organization. The bond of union was generally either nationality, or community of studies. The great numbers of the students and masters made it difficult and even impossible that all should find suitable lodgings. Accordingly, to meet the demands of the hour, there arose halls or inns set apart by the various nations, where the conditions of living and of study might be secured at a moderate cost. The halls appear to have been at first merely boarding-houses, not schools; yet they seem to have become at once the object of beneficence. The rich and piously disposed endowed the houses with gifts and bequests, in order to maintain those who wished to devote their lives to study,

and especially to a religious life. Usually the gifts were dedicated to some saint whose name became that of the house, and the household belonged to some religious order. This was not always the case, though we read that, "even the first purely secular college, and the most famous of them all in history, was founded for the study of theology—that, namely, instituted by Robert de Sorbonne, chaplain to Louis IX." Speedily the term "college" signified an endowed hall. And, study and teaching organizing themselves within such a hall, the college became not merely a boarding-house, not merely an endowed inn, but a school—an *universitas* within the *universitas*. Such plainly was the college founded by Walter de Merton, now a famous college of Oxford. It was a school of general learning, whose aim was to produce a "constant succession of scholars devoted to the pursuits of literature, bound to employ themselves in the study of arts or philosophy, theology, or the canon law; the majority to continue in the arts and philosophy until passed on to the study of theology by the decision of the [authorities] and as the result of meritorious proficiency in the first-named subjects."

Here we have a pretty full sketch of a modern university. The arts course corresponding to the under-graduate (college) course, and the study of theology and canon law standing for the graduate studies. As soon as the colleges thus took on the character of complete schools, it is easy to see that the colleges became practically all important. So it was at Oxford and Cambridge, and so it is there largely to-day. In distinction from the colleges composing it, the University of Cambridge is the corporation, the degree conferring power. The English university has no material existence. It is not of bricks and mortar. It is a union, a corporation. You may visit the colleges, you cannot find the university. The name does not, as it did not at first, denote the grade or the scope of instruction. It means merely the central authority under which the colleges stand related.

It is not necessary for our purpose to trace in detail the differentiation of the various "Faculties" within the university. Naturally, the masters giving instruction in related subjects would consort together for counsel and for work. The arts faculty would be the first to arise from the monastic schools. For grammar, rhetoric, logic, arithmetic, astronomy, music, literature, philosophy,—these would form the basis of study and learning. The masters of theology, of law, of medicine, would, in turn, form their separate groups. And graduation from the arts faculty seems to have been, from the first, the pre-requisite

for entering upon these specialized courses of study. The university was, therefore, by this time, a collective unity not only of individual students, not only of "nations," not only of halls or colleges, but of faculties as well. And the conception of under-graduate work as a pre-requisite to specialized graduate work was thus early formed. When a boy had studied three or four years in the old *trivium*—grammar, rhetoric, and logic, he then received the title "Baccalaureus," which really means a cow boy, or servant to a farmer. His title meant merely a servant of arts. If, on becoming "Baccalaureus," or, as we should say, "Bachelor of Arts," he proceeded to study with a view to Mastership, his first or bachelor title, then, did not so much mark the completion of his course as the commencement of his real specialized study. On thus taking up his second course, he was said to "commence in arts," and the point of transition was and still is appropriately termed his "Commencement." If he was finished in arts, he was termed "Magister"—Master, and was licensed to teach. If he finished in law or medicine, he was entitled "Doctor." The terms "Master" and "Doctor" are still interchangeable.

We have traced the university from its inception in the narrow monastic schools. We have seen the masses flocking to those schools, attracted by famous teachers. We have seen these throngs organizing themselves into national groups, dwelling in lodging-halls; these halls in turn becoming endowed colleges, the colleges, especially in England, becoming in fact, separate universities within the great university. We have seen the rise of faculties and the gradation of the titles and degrees, until in the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge we have a collection of complete schools or colleges independent and sufficient unto themselves, save that to the university—the central authority—the graduates must look for their degrees.

I have said that the English university has no existence in stone and mortar, that it is merely the degree conferring power, the government under which the separate colleges are grouped. I have said that these separate colleges may, in fact, be universities within the university. A curious illustration of each of these facts, the non-material character of the university, and the university character of some of the colleges, is found in England to-day. In a letter which I recently received from a distinguished Englishman, a Cambridge man, and an authority in university affairs (Dr. Richard Green Moulton, now of the University of Chicago) occurs this paragraph:

"With regard to the English usage nothing can be more decided than the English idea that a university is a degree-giving body. It is so at Oxford and Cambridge; the colleges having no power in that way; they are only teaching bodies. So with the other universities. London University is simply an examining board, granting degrees but doing nothing else. Durham is a union of colleges on a very small scale, like the older universities. All the many 'local colleges' throughout the country, some of them (like Mason at Birmingham or Holloway for women) large and splendidly endowed institutions, nevertheless have not a chance of a charter to grant degrees, but they simply prepare their students for London University. Two circumstances well illustrate the English feeling. The Owens College, Manchester, was really a university with a splendid staff; but the only way in which it could get any power to make its own degree courses was, not that it was erected into a university, but that an imaginary university was created by charter—The Victoria University—of which Owens College was the first constituent college. Now three others have joined this Victoria University. But for some years the same body gave teaching in its capacity as Owens College, and then examined for degrees in its capacity as Victoria University. Similarly to what successive governments have done for Welsh education; First, they established three colleges in different parts of the principality, which prepared students for the degrees of London; recently they have created a University of Wales, simply a degree-giving body to which the Welsh colleges send up students."

NATHANIEL BUTLER.

Colby University.

(To be concluded.)

"And yet once more, in comparatively modern times, long after the Mesopotamian empire, and Phœnician commerce, and Carthaginian lust of conquest, and Jewish temple-worship, had passed away forever, extinguished in the extinction of those several nationalities, a new branch of the Semitic race, which till then had slumbered in inaction and insignificance in the deserts of Arabia, awoke all at once to the call of a great religious teacher, Mahommed; burst its limits, overwhelmed Asia, Africa, and no small part of Europe, and flowered out suddenly and brilliantly in science, art, and philosophy; attaining a combined political and literary eminence to which no Semitic people had made before any approach, and threatening to wrench the leadership of human destiny from the keeping of the enfeebled races of Europe. Finally, corrupted within, and foiled and broken without, it sank into comparative obscurity; and with it went down, probably forever, the star of Semitic glory and importance, in the external history of the world, although half mankind still own the sway of Semitic religious ideas and institutions."—William D. Whitney.

Anthony Trollope.

It is hard to say anything new of Anthony Trollope, and there is less need to say anything at all about him now than there was when the editor of *THE CITIZEN* kindly asked me to write about him. For since that time Mr. Frederic Harrison has written an admirable paper on him for *The Forum* and Professor Saintsbury has given a most satisfactory appreciation of him in a book which I do not altogether like, but which contains some apt criticisms—I mean his 'History of Nineteenth Century Literature.' Mr. Harrison and Professor Saintsbury have almost exhausted the subject—that is from the point of view of favorable criticism—and I certainly have no intention of making unfavorable comments upon a writer who was one of the delights of my youth and early manhood. There have always been people, even in the years from 1855 to 1875, when he was at the height of his popularity, who have been able to see no good in Trollope, who have found his stories amorphous and heavy and his humor of very poor quality; but I was never enrolled among them. I can remember well the pleasure I took in 'The Way We Live Now,' when it appeared in serial form, and I think I read almost everything he wrote after this as well as nearly all the important novels he had written before. I cannot be certain of the number, and I am sure I have no intention of counting them; but I think I have read over thirty of Trollope's novels, and I do not regret reading a single one. Some of these thirty were not very great, but when you honestly like a man you can put up with a good deal from him. If he had lived to write more I should probably have gone on reading him.

I was not even weaned from my favorite by the publication (shortly after his death in 1882) of his 'Autobiography,' with its frank confession of the mechanical way he composed so many pages a day before breakfast. I could not see why a delightful book like the 'Autobiography' should be allowed to hurt its author's reputation. Granted that old Anthony did his work mechanically and looked sharply after the pecuniary rewards it brought him—this did not affect the fact that the novels themselves were before us to be judged by the same canons that we should apply to the books of a man who kept his methods of composition a dead secret. But the art of writing is too delicate a matter, said the critics, to be subjected to fixed, mechanical rules. Precisely so—too delicate a matter to be subjected to the fixed rule of these dogmatic critics, that good literary work cannot be done

at stated times and in stated amounts. If a man be methodical by nature and possess genius or talents (and there is no necessary antagonism between method and genius) I see no reason why his genius or talents should not express themselves methodically. Just so, if Trollope loved fox-hunting and took great interest in post-office work and club life—if he was an indefatigable traveller and had unfounded aspirations for attaining the reputation of a scholar, I see no reason why I should allow these facts to make me forget the keen interest I took in 'Barchester Towers' or 'Framley Parsonage.' Trollope appealed to the suffrages of his contemporaries and posterity as a novelist and it is by his novels that he must be judged.

Now the fact is, *me judice*, that in spite of Trollope's other ambitions and in spite of his enormous literary output, he succeeded in writing a remarkable number of good novels, one or two of which just miss greatness. The critics who see nothing good in Trollope must be rather self-satisfied persons to persist in emphasizing their opinion in view of his undoubted popularity for two decades and of the undoubted fact that a large number of well-equipped critics have not hesitated to own that they like him. It is not a question of whether Trollope was a novelist of the first order—nobody claims that position for him. It is merely a question of his rank among the secondary novelists and of the possibility of a few of his books being read by posterity. Now I think it a fair answer to this question to say that whether by talents or sheer industry Trollope managed to make for himself a very respectable place among the novelists of his class and that if posterity does not care to read 'The Warden,' 'Barchester Towers,' and a few others of his novels, posterity will be on the whole the loser. For posterity ought to have a reasonable amount of interest in the ecclesiastical and political life of England from 1850 to 1870, and posterity will not be able to get this better described than it is in Trollope's best novels. Perhaps posterity will wish, as we do, that Trollope's humor had been of a finer variety, that he had observed life with keener eyes and with a more poetic imagination, that he had had the insight into character and the firm grasp of the complex threads of existence that characterized his great French master Balzac, whom he followed a long way off. But this is only to say that posterity will wish that Trollope had been a first rate genius—which, while a pious and commendable desire, is somewhat beside the mark. All his friends wish that Anthony had been a genius (the fates were against him for the Trollopes, Anthony, Eleanor, and Thomas Adolphus were

pre-eminently a talented family, and talented families are not perhaps the best sources from which to expect creative genius); and we may all doubtless wish that the popular taste for fiction in his time, which he hit remarkably well, had been higher than is indicated by its satisfaction with novels, in the words of Mr. Saintsbury, "of more or less ordinary life, ranging from the lower middle to the upper class, correctly observed, diversified by sufficient incident not of an extravagant kind, and furnished with description and conversation not too epigrammatic, but natural and fairly clever." Yes, we may wish that Trollope had been a genius and run ahead of his age, or that his age had required more of him; but we have to take him as we find him, and I am willing to take him with the Barchester and the parliamentary novels without fear of despising myself for my choice in after years, and I think posterity will not make such a bad bargain if it take him on the same terms.

For why should not the reader of 1950 take an interest in Mrs. Proudie, and the Bishop and Mr. Slope? Will shrewish wives, and hen-pecked husbands and religious hypocrites be over and done with then? If so, Trollope and 'Barchester Towers' must certainly go the way of all flesh, and so must all fiction for that matter, except perhaps such as is meted out to Sunday School children. But if the world continues to wag on much as it does to-day I think that Mrs. Proudie—that redoubtable and thoroughly alive Mrs. Proudie—will continue to browbeat the Bishop, that Mr. Slope will still be oily and Mr. Harding self-distrustful; that the Rev. Dr. Grantly will still take off his hat to let his anger escape without explosion, and that Eleanor Bold will still be the subject of invidious gossip. In other words, I cannot bring myself to believe that people are going to stop reading 'Barchester Towers,' and I am inclined to think that if they read that they will want to read 'The Warden,' 'Framley Parsonage,' 'The Last Chronicle of Barset,' 'Doctor Thorne,' 'Phineas Finn,' 'The Duke's Children,' and—but I am living my own youth over again in the fond fancy that the young people of half a century hence will not do, as young people are always doing, smile in a pitying way and say with a curl of the lip, "*nous avons changé tout cela.*"

W. P. TRENT.

University of the South.

Mutual education, in a large sense of the word, is one of the great and incessant occupations of human society, carried on partly with set purpose, and partly not. One generation forms another; and the existing generation is ever acting and reacting upon itself in the persons of its individual members.—*John Henry Newman.*

The Water Supply of Philadelphia.

STORAGE SYSTEM.

When the Bullitt bill went into effect in 1887, the city possessed eight storage reservoirs and two high service tanks, with an aggregate storage capacity of 195,000,000 gallons, or less than three days' supply. The daily pumping capacity was at that time 183,000,000 gallons, and the daily per capita consumption was eighty-nine gallons. The city had already decided upon the policy of constructing storage reservoirs as the best available means of securing a purer water supply. Ground had been purchased at Cambria and Thirtieth streets, for which \$206,512.50 was paid, and \$42,377.33 additional for damages to surrounding property on account of its proximity to the basin.¹ Upon investigation, it was found that the topography of the ground rendered it unsuitable for the purpose, and the land still remains in possession of the city unused.

During 1887 one section of the East Park reservoir, with a storage capacity of about 62,000,000 gallons, was completed. The following year the second section was completed, adding to the storage capacity 306,000,000 gallons, and in 1889 the entire reservoir was made ready for use. This is, by far, the largest and most important reservoir in the whole system. It is situated in east Fairmount Park and had been begun twenty years before as the result of the unprecedented drouth of 1869. At that time the city's storage capacity was only 1.2 day's supply. The first map, showing the size, form, and position of the reservoir, was published in the departmental reports for 1871. It was evident that a reservoir of this size could not be constructed outside the park without condemning a large tract of land at an enormous cost to the city. As the ground in the park already belonged to the city and had been primarily acquired largely for water purposes, it was believed that there would be no serious objection to the construction of the reservoir at that point. Nevertheless an injunction was issued by Judge Thompson restraining the water department in 1871. It is one of the largest reservoirs ever built with artificial banks from bottom to top and has a capacity, when full, of nearly 700,000,000 gallons. The distance around the inside slopes is nearly two and a half miles. The completion of this reservoir increased the storage capacity of the city to eight days' supply.

At the same time certain portions of the city were very inadequately supplied with water,

notably, the extreme northwestern part, and nearly all of West Philadelphia. To remedy this the contract was let, in 1890, for the construction of a new reservoir at Roxborough, to supplement the one constructed there in 1866. This new reservoir is situated nine miles from the City Hall, and has an elevation of 419 feet. It is constructed in two sections, covering thirty-five acres, and has a storage capacity of 148,000,000 gallons. This increased the storage capacity for this district from one to eleven days. Unusual foresight was shown in this case by the reservation of sufficient ground for the construction of filter beds, should the city subsequently adopt that plan of purification.

The reservoir was reported completed on September 21, 1893, and the same day water was pumped into it. It was discovered that the reservoir leaked when water had reached the depth of sixteen feet. Notice of the leaks was given to the contractor and he was directed to make the necessary repairs. As he paid no attention to the notice his securities were notified that the city would make the repairs and charge all expenses as unfulfilled obligations. Work was then begun by the city, but was soon discontinued on account of the freezing weather. No serious attempt, however, seems to have been made by the city authorities, during the summer of 1894, to remedy the defects.

In 1892 the contract was drawn for the construction of another large subsidence reservoir, located at Queen lane and Thirty-first street, near the Falls of Schuylkill. The reservoir occupies four blocks and has an elevation of over 230 feet, with a capacity of 383,108,040 gallons. On December 13, 1894, the contractors reported the reservoir completed. On November 29, at the request of the contractors, water was pumped into the basin, and, when it reached the altitude of ten feet, water appeared in the trench excavations made for the supply pipes to the reservoir, apparently from leaks. The water was lowered for the purpose of detecting the cause of leakage, but the work was stopped on account of the severity of the weather. This reservoir would increase the total storage capacity to 1,400,396,854 gallons. It has not yet been accepted by the city, but the present administration has made several attempts to patch it up so that it will hold water.

The desirability of any system of purification by subsidence, is based upon the assumption that the reservoirs will hold water to their full capacity, and the statements, in regard to the storage supply, are based upon this assumption. The experience of Philadelphia does not seem to justify a continued

¹ Rep. of 1886, p. 12.

dependence upon subsidence as a sufficient means of purification. Not only do the last two reservoirs constructed fail to hold water to a depth any where near their full capacity, but the city's principal reservoir in East Park, with a reported capacity of 673,874,614 gallons, does not, at most seasons of the year, contain half that amount, and at certain periods, not one-fourth. The extreme depth of the basin is thirty-one feet, and the standard depth, at which the water is expected normally to stand, is twenty-five feet. From June 15, 1892, to September 15 of the same year, it did not, at any time, exceed six feet. The director, in his report, states, that at no time during twenty-four hours did the depth of the water vary two inches, "showing that all of the water pumped was used." Whatever may be the cause of this condition of things, the practical result is that the city receives its water almost by direct pumpage, and the water in the reservoir has no opportunity to relieve itself of even the grosser impurities suspended within it.

CONSUMPTION AND WASTE.

The one constant recurring feature in the annual reports of the Water Department is the steady increase in the per capita consumption of water. At first arguments were presented and comparisons made to show that much of this increased consumption must be due to waste. But in recent years the waste has been assumed as a matter of course and councils called upon to remedy the evil by proper legislation. In a paper on the future water supply of Philadelphia read before the Engineers' Club in 1879, by Mr. Charles G. Darrach, it was estimated that by 1950 the quantity of water needed by the city would be 150,000,000 gallons daily. The average daily pumpage during 1895 was 215,824,244 gallons, or 43 per cent more than the estimated need fifty years hence. The constantly increasing consumption per capita during the past ten years is shown by the following figures:

1885, 72 gallons.	1891, 140 gallons.
1886, 73 gallons.	1892, 143 gallons.
1887, 89 gallons.	1893, 150 gallons.
1888, 100 gallons.	1894, 159 gallons.
1889, 110 gallons.	1895, 162 gallons.
1890, 131 gallons.	

Although the reports of the Water Bureau have each year called attention to this constant increase which is largely attributed to waste, no attempt whatever has been made by councils to apply remedial legislation. Waste is defined by Colonel Ludlow as follows: "By waste there is meant the water which having been pumped into the reservoirs and distributing mains escapes thence into the sewers,

the ground or the street beyond the possibility of utilization without having performed in its journey any useful function or service whatever."¹ This waste may be attributed to the following causes: (1) Leakage from distributing mains and reservoirs;¹ (2) Defective service pipes and faulty plumbing. The relation between water waste and plumbing is very close. It is probably true that the waste from this source is relatively less than formerly as the city now exercises a more careful control over the business of plumbing than it formerly did; (3) Loss through careless or willful opening of taps and faucets. It is to this cause that perhaps the largest part of the waste is due.

The average householder is not aware of how great an expense to the city a little carelessness on his part may be. A faucet or washstand running constantly will flow 1800 gallons in a day, and accordingly in ten to fifteen days will exhaust the entire amount needed by a family for a year. A hydrant in a yard flows 6000 gallons daily, and in three or four days will waste a year's supply for a family.² But it is not in the household that most of the waste takes place. The industrial establishments and other large consumers are responsible for by far the greater amount. Nothing but self-interest is strong enough to check this waste. When the large consumer is required to pay for what he consumes, he will take the steps necessary to stop the waste and not before. By a resolution passed in 1870 the Chief Engineer of the Water Department was authorized, whenever he deemed it necessary to determine the quantity of water consumed by manufacturers and other large consumers, to attach meters to the water pipes. But this was for the purpose merely of enabling him to determine the proper schedule rate, and affords no adequate protection against waste. By a subsequent ordinance the head of the department was directed to introduce meters whenever it should be specially agreed to by the consumer. In 1884 the meter price of water was fixed at sixty cents per 1000 cubic feet, or about eight cents per 1000 gallons, and in 1893 it was reduced to thirty cents per 1000 cubic feet, or four cents per 1000 gallons. In 1890 a specific recommendation for the use of meters was made and 270 were introduced, making the total number then in use 522. The rents received from these meters amounted to \$49,168, while the assessments at schedule rates would have amounted to only \$14,328. One of the immediate results of testing the amount of water consumed was the discovery

¹ Rep. of 1883, p. 51.

² Rep. of 1883, pp. 37, 38.

that a number of illegal connections had been made. As the introduction of meters is optional with the consumer, only those who think they will gain thereby consent to use them, and the city is made to suffer a twofold loss.

Meanwhile the daily consumption has constantly increased at a rate far exceeding the increase in population. The threatened water famine of 1892 once more led to the agitation of the meter question. It was recommended by the head of the department as a purely business measure to economize the water supply for the benefit of the whole city. It had been clearly enough established by experiment that a large portion of the water passing through the connections of many industrial establishments was wasted. The only efficient way to check the waste seemed to be to make the consumers pay for the water consumed. This was of course strenuously resisted by the large consumers. They held that, as long as the city is making a profit from the administration of the Water Bureau, it would be unjust to charge them more than the schedule rates. In the meantime councils, instead of making the use of meters by the large consumers compulsory, reduced the meter charge to four cents a thousand gallons. This price is a little less than the cost of pumping and distributing the water. It is worthy of notice that this price is extremely low, being less than half the price charged by Chicago, which has an inexhaustible supply of fresh water, and is just one-half the price charged by Glasgow, a city famous for its pure and cheap water supply.

The present Chief of the Bureau in his report for 1895 has emphasized the necessity of checking the waste and strongly recommends the use of meters. He says: "In dispensing water otherwise than by meter we are simply following a precedent established in the earliest days of the water supply and wholly unfitted to present conditions. To supply water at annual rates varying with the size of the attachment is as crude and unscientific as it would be for a merchant to charge his customers an annual rate depending upon the size of the doorway through which he took his goods."¹

The principal objectors to the compulsory introduction of meters are the large manufacturers who must of course be protected against excessive charges as their interest is closely bound up with that of the city, and in most cases their water charges would be raised by the introduction of meters. The meter, however, is merely an instrument for measuring the quantity of water consumed, and has no

relation to the charge per 1000 gallons. If the present meter rate should be found excessive, it could of course be lowered.

The hollowness of the argument advanced against the use of meters is so apparent that it is surprising that any one should be influenced by it. The very fact that the city makes a profit from the administration of the Water Bureau, instead of being an objection to the use of meters, is one of the reasons why the industrial establishments and other large consumers should be made to pay at least the cost of pumping and distributing the water. The present meter rate barely covers that cost. For the year 1895 the net receipts, after paying all expenses, both current and for extensions, were nearly a million of dollars.

It is therefore evident that the average householder is not merely paying into the city treasury the cost of the water consumed, but a handsome tax in addition, the whole of which does not inure to the general public, but is a direct subsidy to every establishment paying less than the cost of pumping and distributing the water. A few illustrations selected from experiments made in 1892 will illustrate what would be gained by the city through the introduction of meters.

A sugar refinery paying \$17 annually, presumably for drinking purposes, used water to the amount of \$963.60. A morocco factory which paid \$335.70 at schedule rates should have paid \$2247.30. A textile mill assessed at \$1792 should have paid \$14,823.35. A medical college paying \$20.40 used water to the amount of \$2170.95. A hotel paying \$300 yearly would have to pay at meter rates \$1549.14. A theatre paying \$154 used water to the amount of \$793.50. A club house that ought to have paid \$472 paid only \$104. A railroad company assessed at \$445 ought to have paid \$1771.93. Nineteen saloons having gutters in front of their bars, where the water was allowed to run continuously, paid water rents amounting to \$554, while the meters showed that they consumed \$2619.50 worth of water.

It is probably true that, if these establishments were required to pay for the water at meter rates, the consumption would fall off, so that the amount paid might not exceed the sum received from present schedule rates. But the benefit would result to the city in saving the expense of pumping the water, and in the wear and tear upon machinery, water would stand at a higher level in the reservoirs, thus increasing the pressure and forcing it into buildings now dry. The number of days' supply would be largely increased and purification by subsidence be much more complete than at present.

¹ Rep. 1895, p. 424.

Some who have opposed the introduction of meters have assumed that it was the intention to introduce them into dwelling houses as well, and have directed their arguments mainly against that phase of the question. No official, so far as I have been able to discover, has ever advocated any such measure. In the first place the charges to dwellings and other small consumers are already much higher proportionally than those to manufacturers, and would cover considerable waste at the present meter price. Moreover it would be extremely bad financial policy for the city to spend more money in suppressing such a waste than the waste itself amounts to. The last report of the Water Bureau makes the statement that the experiments clearly show that from 60 to 65 per cent of the water pumped is wasted.¹ If this is so, and there is no reason to doubt it, a saving of one-half the waste would pay the interest on a sum sufficient to construct a filtration plant sufficient to meet the present demands of the whole city. The administrative department of the city has strongly urged both the introduction of meters and the construction of a filter plant. The power to do so and the consequent responsibility rest with city councils.

A. A. BIRD.

(To be Concluded.)

There is a time in every man's education when he arrives at the conviction that envy is ignorance, that imitation is suicide; that he must take himself for better for worse as his portion; that though the wide universe is full of good, no kernel of nourishing corn can come to him but through his toil bestowed on that plot of ground which is given to him to till.—*Emerson.*

Taste should be educated by contemplation, not of the tolerably good, but of the truly excellent . . . The best . . . when you have fully apprehended, . . . you will have a standard, and will know how to value inferior performances without overrating them.—*Goethe.*

That *Sturm und Drang* of the spirit, as it has been called, those ardent and special apprehensions of half-truths, in the enthusiastic, and as it were prophetic advocacy of which, a devotion to truth, in the case of the young—apprehending but one point at a time in the great circumference—most naturally embodies itself, are levelled down, surely and safely enough, afterwards, as in history so in the individual, by the weakness and mere weariness, as well as by the maturer wisdom, of our nature:—happily! if the enthusiasm which answered to but one phase of intellectual growth really blends, as it loses its decisiveness, in a larger and commoner morality, with wider though perhaps vaguer hopes. And though truth indeed, lies, as has been said, "in the whole"—in harmonisings and adjustments like this—yet those special apprehensions may still owe their full value, in this sense of "the whole," to that earlier, one-sided but ardent preoccupation with them.—*Walter Pater.*

¹ p. 524.

Correspondence.

Present Problems in English Education.

LONDON, October 1, 1896.

To the Editor of THE CITIZEN:

SIR—The great storm which burst over our elementary schools in the first half of the year has hardly subsided, though during the holidays there has been a lull in the controversy. We are now on the eve of a new agitation. In spite of the absorbing interest of foreign politics, the newspapers are beginning once more to open their columns to correspondence on the needs of voluntary schools. The Church Congress is going to discuss the problem. Meetings in the various dioceses of England and Wales have already begun to pass resolutions on the subject. An influential committee is about to meet at the headquarters of the National Society, which watches over the fortunes of the Church of England schools. And there are many other signs of renewed activity alike on the part of the government and of the champions of the school board system. In this article I shall attempt to place before your readers a picture of the present position of the contending forces on some of the momentous questions which have been recently pressed on public attention in connection with public elementary education in this country.

There are several questions at issue. These I will attempt to disentangle from one another, premising, however, that there is no such separation in the actual controversy which is now raging among us; in fact throughout the whole correspondence on the subject there has been what Carlyle called "infinite mess, jumble and dislocation."

Our elementary school system began through the voluntary efforts of the churches. Its first developments were inspired by the philanthropic impulse which deeply moved the English nation at the close of the last century. Thus in their origin the schools were denominational, except in so far as they were attached to the British and Foreign School Society, which was founded for the express purpose of establishing unsectarian schools. It was soon recognized that voluntary effort in education was attempting to do what was in fact a national work, the cost of which must in the end exceed the normal limits of private charity. In 1833, the year after the passing of the Reform Act, the government of the day undertook for the first time to make a grant of £20,000 a year for the erection of school-houses. This subsidy was distributed according to the recommendations of

the two great educational societies, viz., the British and Foreign School Society, founded in 1808, and the National Society in connection with the Church of England, founded in 1811 to carry on the work previously done by a sub-committee of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge. The grant was continued yearly down to 1840. Government aid gradually grew. Its avowed intention was to give an impulse to the growth and development of the system established by the religious denominations. In the words of Sir J. Kay-Shuttleworth, to whose labors English elementary education owed a heavy debt, the government grants, coupled with voluntary effort, "created a vast denominational system which firmly established popular education on a religious basis." By the year 1860 the annual grant in aid of the elementary schools amounted to £798,167.

Then came a check. The expenditure had frightened the economists; a Royal Commission sat, and recommended wide-reaching changes in school administration. Mr. Lowe in 1861, passing over the more ambitious proposals of the commissioners, fastened on those of their recommendations which pointed in the direction of economy. His "Revised Code" marks an epoch in English education. He promised that under his management the system should be either efficient or cheap. It proved to be cheap. The grants fell from £798,167 in 1860 to £649,307 in 1866. But the saving was short-lived. It was a false economy. Being purchased at the price of a mechanical system of payment by results, its ultimate effect so far from being that which its author had foreseen, provoked a strong and abiding reaction against a kind of inspection which crudely applied the methods of commercial audit to the living organism of the school. By 1867 public feeling had so far prevailed as to compel the government to introduce important modifications of principle into the code.

In the meantime the educational destitution of many of our large towns was causing justifiable alarm. English education had dropped far behind that of the other leading countries alike in point of accommodation and of quality of instruction. Far-seeing men agreed that something must be done and done quickly. The old voluntary system had broken down; by its unaided efforts problems of public education could not be effectively solved. And yet this conviction spread very slowly among the people at large and even excited vehement opposition among some of those connected with the administration of the existing schools. To them the past was dear. They valued their rights of manage-

ment; they hated the idea of public control; they were for the most part ignorant of what was being done abroad; they thought of the school rather as the appanage of the denomination than as an organ of the culture of the state; they thought more of the special interests of the sect than of the wider needs of the country; they clung to their schools as one great means of safeguarding the future of their church.

Extremes produce extremes. Over against these advocates of a purely voluntary system there were ranged the champions of free public secular education. The scientific movement had weakened religious belief; a fierce secularism dominated many minds. It made alliance with the left wing of liberalism in politics. Its avowed aim was the destruction of the voluntary schools and the establishment everywhere of elementary education under direct local control.

The parties were evenly matched. The casting vote lay with the central body of moderate opinion and it was given in favor of a compromise. It was decided to set up alongside of the voluntary system a new class of schools under the management of local bodies popularly elected on a wide franchise. The schools of the new creation, however, were to supplement, not to supersede, the older type. The two classes of schools were to co-exist. English elementary education was thus definitely organized on a dual basis under the general superintendence of a central department of state. This in substance is the effect of the Act of 1870, associated with the name of Mr. W. E. Forster.

It had been originally intended by the government that the Town Councils should be the local school authorities. But at that time the great majority of municipal corporations had not recovered their prestige from the long period of corruption from which Whig reforms had rescued them. In deference to public opinion and with special regard to the needs of London, the government set up an *ad hoc* educational authority, called the School Board. Those districts which desired to do so were given power of electing school boards for the specific purpose of providing elementary education. These boards can draw from local rates. They serve a precept on the local rating authority which the latter is bound to honor. At first, it had been intended to give the local authority the power of making grants from rates to all the schools within its area, whether voluntary or board. This proposal, however, was strongly opposed alike by the extreme board school party and by the more timid voluntarists. Mr. Gladstone, on behalf of the government, compensated the voluntary

schools for the loss of a prospective share in the rates by increasing the annual grants from the central office. Local rates were thus confined to board schools. The religious difficulty, which had been acute, was scotched for the time by a compromise called "The Cowper-Temple Clause," which provides that in a school provided by a school board religious instruction shall not include any catechism or other formulary distinctive of any particular denomination.

The two systems now grew up side by side; board schools multiplied in number; elementary education was made compulsory; the standard of instruction rapidly rose; the public interest in education was strengthened; the cost of education grew; and the operations of the central department extended year by year; but, in spite of the development of the school board system, out of the 4,200,000 children in average attendance in elementary schools in England and Wales, in 1894-95, 2,400,000 were scholars in voluntary schools.

This, then, is the general position so far as organization is concerned. What are the pressing problems to which it has given rise? First and foremost, the board school system is rapidly overtaking the voluntary schools. It could not be otherwise. The school boards draw from public monies with both hands; they have not only the central grants from the state, but whatever rate they choose to levy on the localities as well. The voluntary schools, on the other hand, are confined to the former source of supply. For everything beyond that, they must fall back on voluntary contributions. But in the meantime the expense of elementary education is steadily rising year by year. There is every sign that it will continue to increase, because better school buildings are demanded, more appliances are required, teachers cost more. What, then, is to be the future of the voluntary schools? This is the question which many denominationalists ask themselves with dismay; Are they to see their schools going under, one by one, broken down by financial difficulties, starved out by the competition of the board schools? Their answer is that, if voluntary schools are to continue, and not merely to continue but to increase in proportion to the population, they must have more help. But where is that help to come from? From the central treasury of the state or from local rates? This is now the subject of vehement controversy. The denominationalists are divided into two parties, the "State-aiders," and the "Rate-aiders." No one yet knows which party will prevail or whether indeed they will be able so far to compose their differences as to present a united front, but this much at

any rate is clear that, if the denomination-ists decide to rely on state-aid alone, such aid must be at once insufficient in amount and precarious in character. If one government discriminates in favor of voluntary schools as against board schools, it is absolutely certain that, in one way or another, a future government will discriminate in favor of board schools as against voluntary schools. Thus the death struggle would only be postponed.

Some sanguine Churchmen and most of the Roman Catholics appear to think that localities can be compelled by statute to help denominational schools out of the rates. This is unlikely, for the public has not yet forgotten the old controversy about church rates. There is a traditional hatred of local rates compulsorily imposed for the support of denominational religion. It is just possible, however, that, if localities were given permissive power to help voluntary schools out of the rates, the local authorities in many districts would avail themselves of the privilege, partly from a general desire to support the existing schools, partly from a sense of fairness, partly from extreme unwillingness to incur the greater expense of a universal board school system.

But behind the financial question lies the religious one. The Roman Catholic Church is powerful in English politics. Here, as all over the world, it is straining every nerve to secure for the children of Catholic parents, dogmatic training in the elementary schools. Within the borders of the Anglican communion there are many who sympathize with the Catholic attitude on this question. Speaking broadly, the High Church party is solid for what it calls distinctive religious teaching in elementary schools. Such teaching, however, it not allowed to be given in the schools under the school boards. The Cowper-Temple clause forbids it. The board schools, indeed, almost universally, provide Christian teaching of an undenominational character; but against this the Catholic party pours forth violent abuse, and holds up what it calls "school board religion" to contumely and scorn. It is very doubtful, however, whether these diatribes are much to the public taste. Certainly, one result of the controversy which raged over the late Education Bill in the first part of this year was to make it plain that the bulk of the people are very well satisfied with the teaching in the board schools. But, though this may be generally the case, it will be admitted that the denominationalist has a grievance. If he lives in a school-board district, he is obliged to pay the school-board rate. This rate goes exclusively to the maintenance of schools in which no denominational religion may be taught. A Churchman who thinks this

undenominational teaching pernicious is morally compelled to maintain his own voluntary school, except so far as the latter is supported by grants from the central government. He thus pays twice over for education and suffers in his pocket for consciencesake. Accordingly, many people think that provision might be made by which either denominational teaching should be allowed to be given in board schools after the ordinary school hours, or by which local authorities might be permitted to contribute out of rates to the support of necessary denominational schools in their district.

It may be that, if the latter expedient is adopted, voluntary contributions will in future be required for little beyond the erection and proper repair of the fabric of denominational schools, and that all other necessary expenditure will be met either out of central grants or local subsidies. Voluntary contributions, which were originally all in all, would thus shrink to a vanishing point. Though erected by private effort, the schools will be maintained at the public expense. But is this to carry with it public control? If so, in what form and degree?

These are the moot questions round which debate will turn. One thing at least is certain, the denominationalists will not at any cost surrender the right of appointing and dismissing their own teachers. This they say they must have, in order to secure the denominational character of their schools. But the teacher makes the school, and the right of appointing the teacher is the central fact of educational control and management. If at any time all the elementary schools of the country were to become dependent for their maintenance on public subsidies alone, the day could not be far distant when in one way or another the public would insist on fully managing the schools for which it paid. To all appearances, however, that point will not come for many years. It is to be hoped that in the meantime the spirit of toleration and the desire to remove all sense of religious grievance will so strongly establish themselves in public opinion as to lead the school boards of the future naturally and without dispute to provide for denominational minorities the kind of school and the kind of teacher they desire. For the present, the voluntary schools will probably be tidied over their difficulties by the help of a new government grant, with more or less success. The Church will grumble—and subscribe rather more than before. We are not yet ready for the great settlement which the Education Bill prematurely attempted to make. In ten years' time it may be possible to carry a comprehensive measure. But this is a day of smaller things. X.

Books.

MONEY AND ITS RELATION TO PRICES. By L. L. Price, Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

HISTORY OF MONETARY SYSTEMS. By Alexander DelMar, M. E. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co.

THE SCIENCE OF MONEY. By Alexander DelMar. Second Edition, Revised. New York: The Macmillan Company.

APPRECIATION AND INTEREST. A study of the influence of monetary appreciation and depreciation on the rate of interest, with applications to the bimetallic controversy and the theory of interest. By Irving Fisher, Assistant Professor of Political Science in Yale University. New York: The Macmillan Company. 75 cents.

Out of the mass of books which have been produced during the present agitation of the money question there are few which have any claim upon consideration, either because of scientific merit or because of clearness of style. It is not to be expected that a man who writes a book on money, merely in order to show that the gold standard of value is an ideal one, will be fair in his treatment of the double standard; nor can one expect that the author of an avowed defence of bimetalism will state impartially the advantages of monometallism. Most of the books on money, published during the last year, have been written by advocates of one or another system, and possess about as much permanent value as a collection of campaign literature on the tariff. They give the reader no knowledge of money; he can get no clear ideas about money from them.

Professor Price's little book on 'Money and its Relation to Prices' will be very helpful to any person who wishes to know what is the connection between the precious metals and the prices of commodities. This is a subject much discussed to-day, yet very little clear thinking is done, and there is a lack of accurate information. Mr. Price has endeavored to give a brief statement of the course of prices during the last four centuries, and to trace the influence which has been exerted upon prices and upon industry and business by the production of gold and silver. He is inclined to favor bimetalism, but his book is not partisan. He draws the conclusion, though not positively, that rising prices due to an increasing output of the precious metals, are followed so quickly by an advance of wages, and by increase of employment offered to labor, that the workingman is benefited on the whole quite as much as any other member of society.

Certain creditor classes, he admits, suffer some loss, but it seems to him that compensation is found for this loss in the stimulus which is given to business enterprise. However, he is careful not to be dogmatic in his statement of opinions, for he constantly warns the reader that the problem is so intricate that certainty about causes and effects is impossible. Mr. Price's book is one of the few books on money published this year which a student of money can read without feeling in the end that he has wasted time.

Professor Irving Fisher's monograph on 'Appreciation and Interest' discusses a part of the subject handled by Mr. Price. Professor Fisher is a monometallist. His monograph is an effort to show that the debtor suffers very little from a fall of prices or, in other words, from an appreciation of the standard of value. He employs mathematics of a simple character in his demonstrations. He calls attention to the difference between money interest and commodity interest. When prices are rising commodity interest will fall unless money interest rises. For example, in the ten years following 1853 the average market interest was 4 6-10 per cent, yet the rate of interest expressed in commodities was only 3 7-10 per cent. On the other hand, in the twenty years following 1874, he finds that the market or money interest was 2 4-10 per cent, while the interest in commodities amounted to 4 9-10 per cent, the purchasing power of money having increased. As a result of his investigations of interest rates and prices during the last twenty years, Professor Fisher concludes that borrowers have lost much less than is commonly supposed. Borrowers, he says, belong to the shrewdest class of business men; they are students of prices; they foresee changes in prices more quickly and accurately than lenders, and, therefore, they are not willing to pay high rates of interest when prices are falling; while, when prices are tending upward, they perceive the tendency sooner than does the lender and take advantage of their foresight, getting capital at a money rate which yields the lender very slight return when measured in commodities.

Alexander DelMar is one of the most original and interesting men writing about money. He is also one of the most learned in the subject. He has just published a second edition of his 'Science of Money,' and also a volume called 'History of Monetary Systems.' The reader of DelMar will quickly discover that the author has been most industrious and painstaking in his study of money from all points of view. Mr. DelMar cannot be accused of having written a book without sufficient preparation. He is familiar with the

literature of money in several languages and has spent between thirty and forty years in its study. His books, therefore, contain much information which the student of money will find useful. They are valuable contributions to the literature of the subject. However, Mr. DelMar has a hobby, and that hobby comes near destroying the value of his work as an historian. He is convinced that money did not become the root of all evil until the free coinage of metals was permitted by law. Throughout his books, whenever the subject of free coinage is mentioned, he loses his temper and scolds with a rhetoric quite as vigorous and almost as vituperative as that which Mr. H. D. McLeod employs when he ridicules the 'blethering clishmaclaver' of bimetallists. Mr. DelMar believes that monetary trouble really began in 1666, when the English crown relinquished the royal prerogative of coinage, for money and the supply of money were thereafter regulated by scheming and selfish bullion brokers. Mr. DelMar is very unsatisfactory in his arraignment of free coinage, and in his exposition of the system which ought to be adopted if the right of free coinage be suspended in the case of all metals. He apparently believes that the government can and should regulate the quantity of metallic money in use, and thus regulate its value. However, his discussion of this very important point lacks clearness and fullness. He seems to take it for granted that no private citizen ought to have the power to turn the metal into so important a thing as money. Notwithstanding the incompleteness of Mr. DelMar's theory, and the heat of his temper, his books will probably have a permanent place in literature. They are certainly more lucid and trustworthy than the over-praised volumes of the Scotch economist, McLeod.

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PHILIP AUGUSTUS. By William Holden Hut-
ton, B. D. Pp. 228. London and New
York: The Macmillan Company, 1896.

The fondness of editors and publishers, of late years, for serial historical writing has had as well as good results. While affording a field for the talent of university tutors and fellows, as well as financial results to publishers, it rarely gives the public any fresh or original historical matter. Old material is recast into more convenient or more readable form, sometimes at the cost of accuracy; and the meagreness of the results obtained makes it questionable whether this energy might not be expended in new fields more profitably to both writer and public.

Mr. Hutton's book is the second in a series of historical biographies of statesmen of continental Europe, edited by Professor Bury of Trinity College, Dublin, parallel to the series of 'Twelve English Statesmen.' He has given us a very readable life of the greatest of Capetian kings, but he has not pictured his time or the France of the late twelfth and early thirteenth centuries in its constitutional and political relations with any degree of fullness or clearness. This may be due not only to the plan of the series, but to the danger that besets the biographer of confining his view too closely to narrow personal relations, or of sacrificing historical accuracy and completeness to rhetorical effect and literary finish. The conceptions as well as the styles of Carlyle and Froude have had a marked influence on the younger school of English historians, and, in the case of our author, we think, an unhappy one, inclining him to verbosity, ambiguity, and a studied effort for the dramatic and the pictorial. The inverted order of words, phrases, and clauses is often confusing, and mars the effect of his best paragraphs.

The arrangement of the book is topical and not chronological, involving frequent repetition, and destroying the historical and logical sequence of events. In more than one instance quotations from his authorities are repeated. This artificial treatment of the subject, while somewhat confusing to the reader, accomplishes the author's object of presenting a more complete picture of Philip as man, statesman, and warrior. Philip was called Augustus, says Rigord, "because he enlarged the boundaries of the state," and Mr. Hutton amply vindicates his title to 'Conqueror' and 'Augustus,' if not to moral greatness.

During his reign of forty-three years (1180-1223), Philip added to the royal domain, left him by his father, Louis VII., "Vermandois, Poitou, Anjou, Touraine, Maine, Alençon, Claremont in Beauvaisis, Beaumont, Ponthieu, Artois, Amiens, Valois, and greatest of all, the duchy of Normandy." He "found France a small realm, hedged in by mighty rivals.—A very small portion of the French people owned his sway, but when he died the whole face of France was changed.—Under him the king of the Franks is first clearly seen to be sovereign of Gaul." His father's reign was a moral, his own a military conquest, yet it was "genuine and durable." With S. Louis and Louis XI., Philip shares "the fame of having created the power which became the arbiter of Europe." His ambition was to restore the realm to the extent and renown that it had in the days of Charles

the Great, and he pursued his object with no delicate conscience, using treachery, deceit, and diplomacy as often as force of arms.

As a Capetian he inherited the feud with the Angevins, and though he at first accepted Henry II. of England as a counselor, he was shrewd enough to elude his control. With his eye on Normandy, Philip used every art of diplomacy and war against Henry and his successors, Richard and John, until the Angevin dominions in France were definitely lost to England, and all hope of regaining them abandoned by John. Three of the eight chapters of the book relate to this struggle which, together with the results following the Albigensian Crusade, operated most powerfully to unite France under the rule of a strong monarchy.

Philip was not, like his father, content to preserve his own. He interfered in the internal affairs of Germany, in the dangerous process of emperor-making, supporting three successive claimants against Otto. This raised up against him a powerful combination of his own barons and the powers. When he crushed the allies at Bouvines he was at the height of his power. But he had set to French statesmen an example that was to bring the greatest disaster in after years to French monarchy.

The relations of Philip with the papacy, though strained on account of the immoral and illegal divorce of his Danish wife, Ingeborgis, sanctioned by his docile French clergy, were ever skilfully turned to his advantage. He used trickery, diplomacy, and even sorcery against the greatest of mediæval popes, Innocent III., and, though laid under papal interdict, his clever political badgering gained him the support of Rome against both England and Germany. The chief gain of Innocent's crusade against the Albigenses came to Philip at the cost of scarce an effort or a farthing.

In his struggle with his barons and the constitutional forces surrounding him, Philip showed his sagacity by espousing the cause of the church and the people against the nobles. He crushed the barons by the church, and then crushed the church through his policy of protection and encroachment.

Mr. Hutton fails to give any adequate account of the institutional and social development under Philip. It would be interesting to hear more of the growth of centralized organs of government, of the privileges granted the towns, of the material prosperity, and of the constructive efforts of Philip. The author claims no originality, but gives unmistakable evidences of a wide and laborious reading not only of the best English and French authorities, but also of sources. He shows good judgment in sifting the dry materials of such

old chroniclers as Rigord, William the Breton, and Matthew Paris, and great skill in presenting through them not only a consistent but a most interesting and impartial picture of a foreign statesman.

J. C. BALLAGH,

Johns Hopkins University.

A SINGULAR LIFE. By Elizabeth Stuart Phelps. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Mrs. Ward's last book is in something like its twenty-fifth thousand. One cannot help trying to imagine the emotions with which its large company of readers must have dilated while following the course of 'A Singular Life.' Did the book strike them merely as an enthralling story in the prevailing mode, or as a latter day revelation?—as a piece of hysteria, or of the higher common sense?—this life, as one truly singular, conceivable only as an exceptional career, or as a pattern and summons?

It is the story of a young man of refined extraction, who studies for the ministry, is rejected as unsound in the faith by the council assembled to ordain him, and thereupon takes up work among the sailors and fishermen in the lowest part of a coast town. It is a forlorn undertaking, but young Bayard goes into it with a fresh and good heart, and makes an amazing impression, winning straightway many converts and many enemies. The glimpses we get of him give no satisfactory account of the source of his power, but we are led to believe that to Angel Alley he is like a being from another world, a man whose face is transfigured, who talks with God, and to whom, as he walks, an Italian laborer, like John Baptist, bears witness, crying, "Behold, the Christman!" The strain of such a life and work on his fine nature is not his only trial. Bayard loves, and his duty to his work with its accompaniments of meanness and poverty stands between him and the satisfaction of his passion. There is an interesting duel between the saint and the man. Twice he breaks out with a wild and significant cry. Leonardo's Christ upon his wall cannot sympathize with him in this strait; "Only this,—the love of man for woman—how canst Thou understand!" Mrs. Ward starts a great question here, and she gives signs of an intention to press it, but does not do so. Smiling fortune comes with relief; Love and Duty are reconciled, and Bayard is able to stick to his post and yet marry. In the youth of his happiness, though, the hatred of his enemies bursts out in violence, and he falls its victim.

This book pictures concretely a spirit which is just now a much admired one. It is also one, I believe, if less, still much honored in obedience. All the social theorists are seeing, all the new books are preaching, that the redemption of society must come through personal sacrifice voluntarily embraced by individuals who take upon their own souls vicariously the burdens of the miserable. No document will be more effective to advance the practice of this truth than this biography. In a personality, even an imaginary one, resides a power which treatises do not exercise. The charm of the Christ-life (to use a phrase which is not necessarily cant) has reasserted itself in the modern world, and the hero of this book illustrates one form of its incarnation. Bayard had no social program. He simply saw individual souls in misery, and he stooped and lifted them up. There is little attempt to prove that his work was socially availing, but none is needed to show the reader that his own nobility of character, that his own glorious salvation, is achieved through sacrifice. It is a noble and a heart-enlarging tale;—after the popular current story of the damnation of another clerical hero who isn't worth damning, a refreshment and a joy. Oh! for many a knight like Bayard!

Nevertheless, I am not quite enthusiastic over the book. I cannot quite feel that, rare and saintly as he is, Bayard is a thorough-going character. I cannot rid myself of the impression that to a saviour so charged with pity for the woes of men there would come no special affection which could dispute the passion which embraced all his people with the fervor of entire devotion. In the heart of the men anointed for society's salvation, love will have passed out of the stage where it restricts itself according to the fancy, beaming upon the multitudes of men and women, satisfied only to be lover of the world's soul, of the universal heart, and to spend itself in unreasoning sacrifice for the mean, the ugly and the ungrateful, in deeds of helpfulness and saving.

Besides, this man makes overmuch of a fuss about it,—or rather Mrs. Ward makes it over him. Is it so strange that one, even from Beacon street, should give his life to the poor, and decline to leave them even for love of a fashionable girl? After all, we have here each but one life, and isn't it simply the part of good sense for a man to make up his mind,—and with perfect serenity,—not to do his second best and live in comfortable "success," but to suffer hardship if it comes, and do the best he can?

WM. BAYARD HALE.

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, 1765-1865.
By Edward Channing. Pp. viii, 352.
New York: The Macmillan Company,
1896. \$1.50.

This volume belongs to the 'Cambridge Historical Series,' edited by Professor G. W. Prothero, of the University of Edinburgh, and is the fifth in the series. The aim of this series is "to sketch the history of modern Europe with that of its chief colonies and conquests, from about the end of the fifteenth century down to the present time;" and is "for the use of all persons anxious to understand the nature of existing political conditions." A most worthy object is this, as the great majority of the people, engaged in other than educational pursuits, find it impossible to read the ponderous volumes covering the last four centuries of civilization.

The volume before us can hardly be called a history, as it is impossible to compress within the limits of one small volume the history of a great nation for a hundred years. It is rather the bird's-eye view of one who has a thorough knowledge of the subject and a philosophical mind.

The author has wisely refrained from giving large space to wars and battles and has devoted the space thus gained to the underlying causes of the Revolution and the political forces at work during the first decades of our national period. The first chapter deals with colonial life in the decade immediately preceding the Revolution, and furnishes an excellent and scholarly view of the religious and educational status of the various colonies, and of the different nationalities of which they were respectively composed. New England remained Puritan in religion long after Puritanism had died out in England, and from this cause ceased to be attractive to the emigrant; the South was composed largely of French Huguenots, and Pennsylvania alone represented all the nations of western Europe. The social barriers of caste of the Old World being gradually swept away in the New, men early recognized that the way to social position and power was open to all, and the one means of acquiring this was in the possession of wealth. The vigilance, therefore, with which the American sought riches was altogether inexplicable to the European traveler. Approaching the Revolution it is shown how the phrase, "No taxation without representation," was understood differently in England and America. In England it was understood that a man was represented in Parliament even though he did not vote—since only one out of nine Englishmen voted for members of Parliament. Viewed in that light the colonists may be said to have been represented in

the Commons, even though they did not help elect that body. But the Americans contended that Parliament was directly responsible to the English people only and to English public opinion, and that it was impossible for the colonists to appeal to their fears or their interests. The author admits, and we think correctly, that the English were legally right. "Parliament was the supreme legislative body of the empire under the existing constitution, and, as it refused to part with any portion of its power, the only remedy was revolution."

The second chapter treats of the immediate causes of the Revolution; and the habitual fairness to the British side proves that the author, unlike many American writers on this subject, has written from the unbiased standpoint of the true historian. He admits, for example, that James Otis was legally wrong in opposing Writs of Assistance (though it might be added that Otis based his argument on human rights rather than legal exactness); that Grenville was a man of the highest honesty, but over-zealous and narrow; and that Pitt and Lord Camden were constitutionally wrong and Grenville and Lord Mansfield were right in their respective views of the Stamp Act. This reminds us of the eminent fairness of some of the British historians when treating this subject—especially of the high praise Mr. Lecky pronounces on American justice and forbearance when writing of the trial of those engaged in the Boston Massacre.

Professor Channing differs from most of our historians in his view of the Articles of Confederation. This compact should be viewed, he claims, having in mind that which preceded rather than the Constitution which followed; and he shows that though the form of government the articles created could not possibly have been permanent, experience was necessary to the American people to convince them of that fact. Moreover, the adoption of the articles was an important step toward a permanent union.

We regret that for want of space we cannot follow the author to the end of the work. Here and there we find a statement not exactly historical; for example, the statement concerning the campaign of 1844, that "Tyler had intrigued for a renomination, but, conscious that he had no chance of being elected, he withdrew and Polk was nominated," would indicate that Tyler intrigued within the Democratic convention, and that he was not nominated at all, having withdrawn in Polk's favor before the latter was nominated; but the fact is that Tyler was nominated in a convention of his own, and was a candidate before the people contemporary with Polk and Clay for

some months before he withdrew in Polk's favor late in the summer. Nor can we agree with the author in awarding much praise to General Grant for the battle of Shiloh. Grant's military skill none will deny, but he certainly failed to exhibit it at Shiloh.

On the whole, the book is certainly one of the best of its kind in our historical literature. The later chapters, however, are not so strongly written as the earlier ones.

There are three good maps and the following five appendices: The Virginia Resolves of 1769, The Declaration of Independence, The Articles of Confederation, The Constitution of the United States, and a Bibliographical Note.

HENRY W. ELSON.

Book Notes.

Harper & Bros. have just issued Dr. William J. Rolfe's 'The Elementary Study of English.' This little treatise is an expanded third edition of his 'Hints for Teachers.' It is a helpful book for teachers who are trying to give their pupils an appreciative understanding of the English classics.

The same publishers are bringing out another book by Dr. Rolfe on 'Shakespeare, the Boy.' It is an expansion of four familiar articles on the boyhood of Shakespeare written for *The Youths' Companion*, which treated in a popular way the environment of youth in Shakespeare's day. The chapters—'His Native Town and Neighborhood,' 'His Home Life,' 'At School,' 'Games and Sports,' and 'Holidays, Festivals, Fairs, etc.'—give an idea of the scope of the book. It will be useful in giving the modern school boy an understanding of many of the social customs and local conditions of the historical period in which Shakespeare worked.

In the introduction to 'Briefs for Debate,' edited by W. Du Bois Brookings, of the Harvard Law School, and Ralph Curtis Ringwalt, of Columbia University, Professor Hart treats debating as an art and comments on recent experience in college debating, notably the Harvard-Yale contests. We have come to expect that any work from the hands of this author will be rich in suggestion, and will serve as a guide for the further consideration of the subject treated. This introduction is in part a statement of the barest common-places, but it is valuable in the six pages of bibliography that are appended, which is well classified and contains a list of available works on the science and art of debate. The bibliography is arranged under 'Treatises on Debate,' 'Compilations for Current Events,' 'Collections of Model Speeches' and 'Finding Lists.'

The entire work is an outgrowth of the courses in debating at Harvard. From about three hundred briefs the editors chose seventy-three representative ones, arranged the bibliographies, and verified the references. The topics selected are nearly all of present public interest, the questions being arranged under politics, economics, sociology, and miscellaneous subjects. The plan of arrangement is first a statement of the question, then a list of general references for the affirmative, and, finally, a summary of propositions on which this side rests its case. The negative is treated in the same way. The work is a model of its kind, and will prove invaluable to the trained debater and to the specialist, as well as to the novice.

The new book of Professor Edward Everett Hale, Jr., on 'Constructive Rhetoric' adds another to the rapidly increasing list of text-books on this subject.

It differs from such a work as Professor A. S. Hill's in arrangement and in aim. It puts first 'Kinds of Composition,' then follow 'The Paragraph,' 'The Vocabulary,' 'Figure and Illustration,' 'The Sentence,' and, lastly, 'Argumentation.' The aim is to teach the student by giving him constant practice. Less attention is paid to the pruning of speech, the whole question of purity of diction being passed over in a few pages. In fact, the author carries into practice his meagre treatment of this matter of purity, for the book is marred by careless writing and a too easy familiarity of expression. The treatment of the paragraph is full, considering the size of the volume, and good. Particularly to be commended are the admirable lists of subjects for essays appended to the various chapters of the work. In the practice obtained from these exercises and the orderly system on which work is planned, lies the chief merit of the book. Henry Holt & Co. are the publishers.

Probably no better handbooks for students who have mastered the elementary principles of rhetoric can be found than the series of 'Specimens' of the various kinds of composition, published by Henry Holt & Co. So far four of the five volumes have appeared. The 'Specimens of Narration,' chosen and edited by W. T. Brewster, A. M., consists of an excellent introduction of twenty-five pages, dealing briefly with the technique of the novel, of a useful bibliography, and selections from classic writers. The 'Specimens of Exposition,' selected and edited by Hammond Lamont, A. B., contains a short introduction, in which the nature of exposition is defined. The 'Specimens of Prose Description,' compiled and edited by Charles Sears Baldwin, Ph. D., contains the most elaborate introduction of the series. This essay is most valuable in its treatment of the principles of description and its suggestiveness for individual criticism. The 'Specimens of Argumentation' (modern) compiled by Geo. P. Baker, is to be followed by 'Specimens of ancient Argumentation.' The introduction of the former consists of instructions for drawing a brief and of a specimen brief.

The essays from *The Athenæum* and *The Academy*, which Mr. Joseph Jacobs publishes under the title of 'Literary Studies,' contain such cultured and careful criticism as distinguishes the reviews in these journals from the swashbuckler articles of *The Saturday Review* and the less ferocious *Spectator*. We are charmed at once by their moderation—the more acceptable since they were nearly all written immediately on the death of the subject of the review—and their freedom from pedantry and dilettantism. The treatment in every case is sympathetic but just; it is critical, without the fierceness which tears a popular favorite to shreds. That the book is a compilation of separate essays, written on various occasions, is manifest. Repetitions occur in the several essays on George Eliot, and in others as well, which we might have been spared. We do not care to have Matthew Arnold's text about Gray, "He never spoke out," repeated with reference to Sir John R. Seeley, after having been applied to Arnold himself. The essays on George Eliot might better have been made over into one full essay; so with those on Newman. There is no especial sacredness about the original notices that they might not have been rewritten and combined.

Mr. Jacobs' criticism merits praise in its clear-cut estimate of his various authors. He is not so carried away by his admiration that he cannot accurately define their merits and their failings. He seizes on the essentials of the artist's work and presents it with the ease and attractiveness of a ready writer. (Chas. Scribner's Sons.)

William G. Johnston & Co., of Pittsburgh, have just published a revised edition of 'The Voter's Guide.' This little book is compiled by the Hon. Jesse M. Baker, the author of the Baker Ballot Law, and is a digest of the election laws of Pennsylvania. It carefully defines the duties of the election officers, and the rights and duties of voters, under the present ballot law. Several cuts and diagrams help to make plain provisions easily misunderstood, and copious citations of cases give valuable information concerning a question in regard to which election officers have betrayed a remarkable ignorance, namely, what votes should not be counted. This little book should be in the hands of every voter in the state who is anxious to familiarize himself with the law governing the very important matter of elections.

We would call attention to Fluegel's German Dictionary, which has been edited for school use by Professor I. Schmidt and Dr. G. Tanger. The two volumes, German-English and English-German, are sold by the publishers, Lemcke & Buechner, for \$4.50.

Miss H. A. Guerber's aim in her book entitled 'Legends of the Middle Ages,' is to give a popular account of the various stories, current in the mediæval period, which form such a significant element in modern literature. All criticism is disclaimed by our author, and only a synopsis of some of the epics and romances is attempted. The most meagre details in reference to the historical relations of the story are given, and, when they are ventured, they are either incorrect, or so very general as to be valueless. Thus Miss Guerber says of 'Beowulf,' that it "is supposed to have been composed by the Anglo-Saxons previous to their invasion of England;" that "although the poem probably belongs to the fifth century, the only existing manuscript is said to date from the ninth or tenth century." It is undoubtedly true that the scene and events of the poem belong to the continent and that the original lays were sung there before the invasion of England, but it is not true that the poem was "composed by the Anglo-Saxons" at that time. Further, it does not belong to the fifth century. The historic events of the poem do not go back farther than 512-520, the date of Hygelac's death. Allowing now for the fifty years of Beowulf's reign, that would take till 570, making 600 not too late a date for the fusion of the myth of Beowulf with the story of Beowulf. The manuscript is known to belong to the latter half of the tenth century. Not much better is Miss Guerber's success when she comes to the simple task of the synopsis of the story of Beowulf. It is full of inaccuracies. In the short account of the story of Breca we are told that, when Hygelac learned from Beowulf that the gashed bodies which had drifted ashore were slain by him, "his joy knew no bounds;" that "the king gave Beowulf his treasured sword Nageling, and praised him publicly for his valor." This may be so, but it is not in the poem. In the chapter on 'Charlemagne and his Paladins,' the pseudo-Turpin *Chronicle* is assigned to 1095, when its date is the end of the last third of the twelfth century. It is further stated that the probable author of the French Metrical Version of the 'Chanson de Roland' is Turoldus. This is based on the last line of the poem, '*Ci fait la geste que Turoldus declinet*,' and is not regarded by critics as true of the authorship of the 'Chanson.' It was not the 'Chanson' but the 'Chant' that was sung at the battle of Hastings.

This is enough to give some idea of the scholarship of this book; there is not space for fuller comment, were it even worth while. The other chapters contain synopses of the saga of Reynard the Fox, of Dietrich, of Arthur, *et al.* As may be inferred from these necessarily brief

criticisms, the inaccuracies are mostly in the details; one is able to get a fairly good idea of these legends from Miss Guerber's synopses, and is helped to an appreciative understanding of the stories as they are found in modern literature. The volume is published by the American Book Company.

The first series of child observations, on imitation and allied activities, made by the students of the State Normal School at Worcester, Mass., has been edited by Ellen M. Haskell, with an introduction by Principal E. H. Russell, and is announced under the title 'Child Observations.' It exhibits, by more than twelve hundred instances, the operation of the faculty or instinct of imitation in children, during the period between the first and the fifteenth year of life. The records are arranged progressively in groups, according to the ages of the children observed, and show, by concrete examples, the growth and development of this fundamental activity of childhood from year to year. D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, are the publishers.

Very curious are some of the 'Tales of Fantasy and Fact,' by Professor Brander Matthews. 'A Primer of Imaginary Geography' is a clever account of a voyage, in which the writer sails on the ship of the Flying Dutchman, who describes to his passenger many of the places and the characters of mythology and fiction. There are some delightful remarks about the "pestilent pedants" and the Forest of Arden in the happy vein Professor Matthews adopts so easily. This story, with 'The Dream-Gown of the Japanese Ambassador,' is cast in the shape of a dream. The latter is a succession of rapid pictures, suggested by well-known stories in several literatures. The same is true of 'The Kinetoscope of Time,' where scenes of dancing and battle, that are famous in story, are told as they swiftly pass before the narrator's eye. 'The Rival Ghosts' is certainly fantastic without displaying that vividness of imagination which reacts from the narrator to the listener, and which thus gives to a palpable impossibility the semblance of reality. 'Sixteen Years Without a Birthday' can hardly be called a story; it is a mathematical solution of an apparently difficult problem. 'The Twinkling of an Eye' is the story that won the second prize for the best detective story offered by a newspaper syndicate—Miss Wilkins and Mr. Chamberlain in collaboration, it will be remembered, winning the first. Professor Matthews ends his volume with a postscript instead of beginning it with the usual preface; in this he confidentially gives the reader some of his experiences as a teller of tales. These stories have all appeared before in print, and are now first collected and published in book form by Harper & Bros.

We note from *The Athenæum*: "Messrs. Macmillan & Co. will shortly publish for Mr. J. Churton Collins an edition of Pope's 'Essay on Criticism.' Mr. Collins's introductory essay will trace the relations of Pope's essay to the most important works of its class, from Horace's 'Ars Poetica' to the 'Ars Poétique' of Boileau and the poems influenced by the latter in the literature immediately preceding Pope." Mr. Collins, it will be remembered by Philadelphians, was in this country three years ago as a University Extension lecturer.

The University of Chicago will publish the first number of the *American Journal of Theology*, January 1, 1897. The prospectus of the journal has been issued, and the support of leading scholars and thinkers in the field of theology has been secured. The first number of the journal will include articles, notes, and book reviews prepared by more than forty different contributors.

To write a history of literature for school or college use which will be satisfactory in all respects is an almost impossible task. Stopford Brooke's 'Primer of English Literature' is the most successful work of its kind. Yet, when it is taken into the classroom, it becomes for the average student the embodiment of all that is uninteresting and dry. A more voluminous treatise runs the danger of being crowded with confusing details, so that the sense of continuity in literary history is apt to be lost. The difficulty of writing an ideal history has much to do with bringing about the change from the old to the new system of learning literature. A student will gain no idea of the literature of a nation by learning the facts concerning it in a school manual. This Professor Pattee, in his 'History of American Literature,' fully recognizes, and he strives to present historical details in such an attractive manner that the student will be induced to read the authors themselves. It is a very convenient book for reference, but not as a text-book to be studied through as an independent work. Nor is this Professor Pattee's intention. By his judicious selection of biographical and critical authorities, given for every author of note, with suggestions for reading the author, he enables a student to find out for himself the character and merit of the works considered. There are appended to the treatment of the more important authors questions and plans of study, which will be helpful to an unassisted student. A great many authors of little importance are allotted paragraphs, who might better, in a work of this kind, be wholly omitted, and authors of the first rank are deprived of a sufficiently full treatment. Professor Pattee shows a commendable sense of the time-spirit in literature in that he keeps before the mind of his readers the environment of place and time which went to the making of every monument of the literature he discusses. The student is not allowed to regard his author as other than the child of his age. We can hardly regard this work as a contribution to our knowledge of literary history. The book is a faithful compilation of the results of modern investigation, without, however, involving a complete sinking of the author's identity. The rather free use of quotations tends to destroy the appearance of impartiality so necessary in work of this kind, in that the quotations are mostly from enthusiastic admirers of the authors concerned. Then one objects to the presence of biographical authorities in the body of the text, not even distinguished by a difference of type. The typographical work, in other respects, is excellent. The publishers are Silver, Burdette, & Co.

Eight Old South Leaflets have just been published by the directors of the Old South Work in Boston, bringing the number of leaflets in this valuable series up to 73. The first of these leaflets, No. 66, is a reprint of Winthrop's famous 'Little Speech' on Liberty, as given in the old Governor's Journal; No. 67 is Cotton Mather's 'Bostonian Ebenezer,' from the 'Magnalia'; No. 68, Governor Hutchinson's account of the Boston Tea Party, from his 'History of Massachusetts Bay'; 69, 'Adrian Van der Donck's Description of New Netherlands in 1655'; 70, 'The Debate in the Constitutional Convention of 1787 on the Rules of Suffrage in Congress'; 71, 'Columbus's Memorial to Ferdinand and Isabella, on his Second Voyage'; 72, 'The Dutch Declaration of Independence in 1581'; 73, 'Captain John Knox's Account of the Battle of Quebec.' The last five of these eight leaflets illustrate the original material with which Irving, Bancroft, Prescott, Motley, and Parkman worked in the preparation of their histories. The leaflets are furnished at five cents a copy, by the Directors of the Old South Work, Old South Meeting House, Boston.

The directors of the Old South Work have contributed to the campaign of education as one of their valuable series of republications, Hamilton's Report on the Coinage, sub-

mitted to Congress in January, 1791. This is a classic paper upon the currency. The question of the single and double standards, and every other question of our present campaign are discussed in this report by the great Secretary of the Treasury with a clearness and thoroughness which gives to the paper a peculiar value. The leaflet, which is No. 74 of the Old South series, is sold for five cents a copy or three dollars a hundred, and it ought to be circulated by thousands all over the country.

Professor O. F. Emerson's 'Brief History of the English Language' is by no means an emaculated form of his earlier 'History.' He has not been satisfied with omitting the more technical details of the ampler work, but has rewritten it throughout. The tone of the new book is different; one readily sees that it is intended for readers who have not had the advantage of that training which qualifies for an intelligent understanding of the larger work. In some places Professor Emerson has expanded his original in order that he may with thorough clearness bring his subject to the comprehension of his students; but the changes are for the most part on the side of omission. The earlier work consists of 415, the later of 267 pages. All critical references are omitted, as the students of this book are not supposed to pursue independent research. The attention is not distracted or the memory taxed, in the discussion of Grimm's Law, by the presence of the cognate forms from other languages than Latin and English. No reference is made to Verner's Law, or to the second Consonant shift in High German. The attention of the student is constantly fixed on English. The treatment of the dialects in the Middle English period is necessarily much briefer; so the history of Norman French influence is greatly condensed. One would like, however, the retention of more of the quotations from contemporary authors who testify to the condition of the language of their time. The chapter on the 'Growth of the English Vocabulary' is omitted, unfortunately, we think, for the treatment of the subject is lucid and interesting to even pupils of high schools. Such topics as Norse and Celtic influence are discussed, of course, very briefly, and Romance influence, other than French, is barely mentioned. The chapters on the 'Principles of English Etymology' are greatly contracted, since they are largely technical. The fundamental processes in the development of sounds from Old English to Modern English are presented with such directness that no one can fail to understand them. For fuller details and greater wealth of illustration, it is necessary to revert to the larger book. The final chapters on 'The History of English Inflections' do not differ essentially from the corresponding chapters of the earlier work. An appendix contains specimens of Old, Middle, and Early Modern English, with grammatical notes, and, for the Old and Middle English specimens, translations.

Professor Emerson's work is scholarly, his style pleasing, and his presentation clear. It is to be hoped that this book will be an effective means in giving the students of the high schools an exact understanding of the history of their native speech. (The Macmillan Company.)

A text-book on 'Elementary Solid Geometry and Mensuration,' by Henry Dallas Thompson, D. Sc., Ph. D., Professor of Mathematics in Princeton University, has been published by the Macmillan Co.

A revised and enlarged edition of Rev. J. B. Lock's 'Trigonometry for Beginners,' by Professor John A. Miller, has just appeared with the imprint of The Macmillan Co. The price is \$1.10.

The latest issues of *The Temple Shakespeare* are 'Venus and Adonis' and 'The Rape of Lucrece.' (The Macmillan Company.)

The appearance in book form of Dr. White's scholarly contributions to *The Popular Science Monthly*, is a literary event of more than passing importance. The work was begun a generation ago under the stimulus of an attack made upon the newly established Cornell University when Dr. White was its president, by certain injudicious ecclesiastics who had taken fright too easily at the scientific ideal of the institution, and has since been faithfully and laboriously prosecuted. The triumph of geology over the older ecclesiastical explanation of the origin of the world and the antiquity of man, the victory of anthropology over the orthodox view of the fall of man, the substitution of the evolutionary concept of law underlying all phenomena for the fitfulness and arbitrariness once believed to characterize God's ways with man, the disappearance of magic before chemistry and physics, the change from demoniacal possession to insanity, and from verbal inspiration to a new view born of a higher and sorer criticism of the Bible are set forth in these attractive volumes vividly and vigorously by a well trained historian of international reputation, who has made such use of international sources as was never made before, and perhaps, thanks to the author's painstaking research, will not need to be made again.

But the book is by no means flawless. The author might easily have chosen a more accurate title. He need not have committed the very error for which in the preface he brings Dr. John W. Draper to book. Between science and theology there has been war no more than between science and religion. The real issue was and is between the scientist and the dogmatic ecclesiastic who has been overthrown, as Dr. White points out, whenever he has been rash enough to offer battle on the field of science, which is never his own ground. The outcome no lover of truth but the ill informed has ever long lamented.

Though the author is an informed lover of truth, he is besides, unhappily, a man with a grievance, the occasion of which has been stated in *The Forum*, for September, by his friend, President Charles Kendall Adams, of the University of Wisconsin. Impartiality is of the heart; wherefore it is almost as hard for a man with a grievance to attain to impartiality as for a camel to go through the eye of a needle. The jubilant tone, the occasional shout of triumph one hears in many of the chapters, breed no distrust of the accuracy of the information and the thoroughness of the research. But jubilation while the battle is still on, as in the case of the authorship of the Fourth Gospel, must give the reader pause before some of the inferences of this monumental work. (D. Appleton & Co.)

Among books recently published by the Macmillan Company is 'The Education of the Central Nervous System; A Study of Foundations,' by Reuben Post Halleck, M. A., of the Male High School, Louisville, Ky., author of 'Psychology and Physic Culture,' etc.

This book is not a scientific, in the sense of being a technical, treatment of this important subject, but is one which will be most useful to any teacher or parent who is seeking practical suggestions for the education of the human brain while it is still plastic and readily influenced.

The *Athenæum* is responsible for the statement that "In the Literature of the World" Series, which Mr. Gosse is to edit for Mr. Heinemann, the Latin literature is to be by Dr. A. W. Verrall, Fellow and Senior Tutor of Trinity College, Cambridge, and the 'Spanish Literature' by Mr. J. Fitzmaurice Kelly, Member of the Spanish Academy."

The Macmillan Company have just issued a copy of 'The Elements of Physics,' by Edward L. Nichols and William S. Franklin. The price is \$1.50.

The Macmillan Company will shortly add to their remarkable fine line of biographies and editions of collected works an entirely new edition of the 'Works and Letters of Lord Byron,' edited by W. E. Henley. It is to be completed in twelve volumes, of which the Letters, Diaries, Controversies, Speeches, etc., will be contained in four, and the Verse in eight volumes of medium size with portraits. The first volume, containing his Letters from 1804 to 1813 with a portrait after Phillips, will be published very shortly, and will be soon followed by the first volume of the Poems with a portrait after Westall.

We have received from the press of A. W. Zickfeldt, Osterwieck, Harz, a copy of Dr. Alex. Wernicke's 'Kultur und Schule.' It deals with the high school system of Germany from the points of view of its history, its present status, and its possibilities of development. The second chapter of the work treats at considerable length of the historical conditions which have brought about the inner unity of the higher school system. Dr. Wernicke traces the course of the German culture and the influence of the Renaissance; he treats of the philological method in the study of the classics and of the mathematical and scientific studies, which have now become such an important factor in modern education. Another chapter deals with the endeavor after unity in the high school system as illustrated in the reform schools.

Messrs. Constable's excellent series of the *Waverley Novels* is approaching completion. 'Anne of Geierstein,' 'Count Robert, of Paris,' and 'Castle Dangerous' form the contents of Volumes xlv—xlvii inclusive.

A thesis for the degree of Ph. D. seldom has as pleasing and popular a form as Dr. Clarke's 'Education of Children at Rome,' (Macmillan). In this little book he describes the purpose of the education, the studies and schools, the pedagogical ideas of the Romans, and the position of the teacher. The style is scholarly and there are sufficient references for any one who may wish to study the subject more thoroughly. It is well to note—what Dr. Clarke does not state—that it is chiefly the education under the early Empire that he describes, and that he sometimes gives an account of what Quintilian considered the ideal education, rather than an account of the actual education in Rome at any period.

A volume of interest not only to antiquarians, but to the increasing number of Americans who visit England, is shortly to be published by The Macmillan Company under the title of 'The Castles of England; Their Story and Structure,' by Sir James Mackenzie, Bart. It will be fully illustrated with full-page plates and illustrations in the text besides many plans. The author aims to produce a book of reference in which will be found a trustworthy account of every fortress, and all defensible and castelated dwellings built from the Conquest to the reign of Henry VIII.

The first volume of a new edition of the prose works of Swift will be issued shortly in Bohn's Standard Library, which in this country is published by the Macmillan Company. It will contain a biographical and critical introduction by Mr. Lecky. The aim of the publishers is to produce a really good text, free from the errors of all the editions now in use. In each case the early editions will be carefully collated with the collected issues of Faulkner, Hawkesworth, and Scott. There will be as little annotation as possible. A feature of the edition, which will probably extend to eight volumes, will be a complete bibliography of Swift's writings, compiled by Mr. Temple Scott.

University Extension News and Announcements.

The Centre at Pittsburgh, which was established last year in connection with the Carnegie Library, has already made engagement for four courses of lectures. These embrace Professor Joseph French Johnson's course on 'The Principles of Money Applied to Present Problems,' a course on Geology, to be given by Professor B. C. Jillson, Mr. Hilaire Belloc's course on 'The French Revolution,' and a course in Economics, the lecturer to be decided upon later. The conditions of the use of the Carnegie Library are such that no lectures can be delivered in its buildings to which an admission fee is charged. The financial obligations are accordingly met by a special membership consisting of voluntary contributors. Excellent library facilities are afforded by the Carnegie Library, with its circulating and reference departments.

The eighth summer meeting of English University Extension students will be held at Oxford in August, 1897. The main subjects of study will be:

- I. The History, Literature, Art, and Economics of the Epoch of Revolution, 1789-1848.
- II. The Science of the Period.
- III. The Original Authorities for the History of the French Revolution.
- IV. The History and Theory of Education; with special reference to Child Psychology.
- V. The English Language; for the special benefit of foreign students.
- VI. Greek, Latin, Architecture, Economics.

Mr. Stockton Axson offers a course of six lectures on 'Some Literary Movements of the Nineteenth Century.'

The first lecture treats of 'Some Traits and Tendencies of the Period.' In the second lecture, 'Beginnings of Nineteenth Century Realism,' Mr. Axson traces the origin of the naturalistic movement from Thomson, Gray, and Collins, through Cowper, Crabbe, and Burns, to Wordsworth. The third lecture continues the development of this topic, attention being bestowed chiefly on Thackeray, George Eliot, and Dickens. 'The Origin and Development of Nineteenth Century Romanticism' is considered in the fourth lecture; beginning with Chatterton, Percy's 'Reliques,' and Horace Walpole, and tracing the growth of the romantic novel through Clara Reeve, Mrs. Radcliffe, and Sir Walter Scott, with a glance at our present-day romanticists in so far as they are the literary heirs of the earlier writers. The fifth lecture deals with 'Literary Philosophy in the Nineteenth Century,' concerned chiefly with Carlyle, Ruskin, and Matthew Arnold. 'Pre-Raphaelitism,' the final lecture of the series, begins with the establishment of the Pre-Raphaelite school of painting and touches on the poetic work of Rossetti, Swinburne, Morris, and Christina Rossetti.

The establishment of the Centre at Lebanon, Pa., this autumn is a striking proof of the superior effectiveness of personal canvass over all other methods of awakening public interest in University Extension. By the efforts of one enthusiastic worker in that town over a hundred persons were induced to subscribe to the necessary expenses of the course. It is interesting to learn that only one response came to the advertisements inserted in the local papers and the circulars distributed through the town. Individuals who will work hard for a local centre can do for a single neighborhood what the general society is trying to do in a larger way.

We clip the following from the October number of the *University Extension Journal*: "The universal opinion seems to be that the summer meeting held at Cambridge last August was one of the most successful in the history of the movement. It was distinguished from previous meetings by two or three new features. In the first place, the division into a first and a second part was minimized as much as possible, and the main part of the work consisted of concurrent courses of twelve lectures each, one on Modern European History, one on Literature, one on Evolution, and a course in Practical Botany. Each of the lectures in these courses was followed by a short discussion class. Perhaps the most important feature of the meeting was the series of short courses on pedagogic subjects arranged for teachers, which proved extremely attractive and were attended by large audiences.

"It is estimated that of the 450 students who attended the meeting about 200 were teachers, of whom many came from Germany, France, Austria, Belgium, Sweden, Norway, Denmark and America. An interesting gathering of all the teachers present at the meeting, English and foreign, took place on Saturday evening, August 15, for the purpose of considering some points of common educational interest. The question around which discussion gathered was that of the limitations imposed upon the freedom and initiation of teachers in foreign countries and in England by the State local authorities and other bodies."

The 1896-97 Ludwick Institute free courses of lectures on natural sciences, intended primarily for the benefit of school teachers, are being given at the Academy of Natural Sciences, Nineteenth and Race streets, Philadelphia, on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays, at 4.30 p. m., having begun on the afternoon of October 16. Many of the lectures are to be illustrated by the lantern, and are free on presentation of ticket, to be had on application at the Academy.

The fall series of lectures are divided into four courses, as stated in the syllabus; a second series of lectures is to be given after Christmas, embracing the subjects of botany, invertebrate zoology, malacology and mineralogy.

The prize of ten dollars offered by Professor Witmer for the best Laboratory Note Book prepared by a student attending the summer course in the Department of Psychology was awarded to Miss Anna J. McKeag, the instructor in psychology at Wilson College, Pennsylvania. The note book for which the prize was offered was to contain a record of the experiments performed by the class taking the laboratory course in experimental psychology, according to the manual prepared by Dr. Witmer. Miss McKeag's note-book is not excelled by any that have been handed in by regular students in the psychological courses in the University of Pennsylvania. It is probably one of the best and most extensive pieces of work ever done by a University Extension student for a single course, comprising about two hundred pages describing experiments on the dermal, visual, and auditory sensations, with references and citations from the literature of the subject, and with original discussion of the facts and principles of psychology disclosed by the experiments.

The University of the State of New York has issued Extension Bulletin No. 14, September, 1896, containing a class list of a \$500 library recommended for schools. Of this list certain books, specially marked, make up a selection costing \$200, and, if to these books the books marked in still another way are added, the amount will reach \$300. Thus the shorter lists are intended to satisfy the first needs in case it is impracticable to buy the full number of books at one time.

The books recommended for students of the various University Extension lecture courses in Philadelphia are reserved on a separate shelf in The Free Library, where they are in charge of an assistant in the Women's Reading Room. All students are requested to apply to her for information regarding the books.

Mr. Graham Wallis's syllabus of his course of six lectures on 'English Institutions' has just appeared. In his first lecture on the Parliament, he traces the history of the struggle for popular government, and defines the present functions of Parliament and the Executive. The second lecture treats of the Civil Service from the historical point of view, with discussion of the problems engaging attention to-day. Municipal Government, the subject of the third lecture, is traced along the lines of its devel-

opment, with special attention to recent progress. The Act of Elizabeth (1601) was the first step in legislation for the poor. This, with subsequent acts, is the subject of the fourth lecture, The Poor Law. The Problem of Education is discussed in the fifth lecture, with stress upon perplexing points of the English system. In Factory Legislation, the sixth lecture, is traced the development of English thought from the eighteenth century generalization that "all mankind are free agents," to the nineteenth century generalization that "all mankind can be made free agents."

Leading dates, books recommended, questions, and illustrative passages are appended to the summary of each lecture. The course is a most attractive one in the history of institutions and in the development of British thought.

Lectures—Autumn, 1896.

At the time THE CITIZEN goes to press, the following Courses have been definitely arranged.

CENTRES IN PHILADELPHIA.

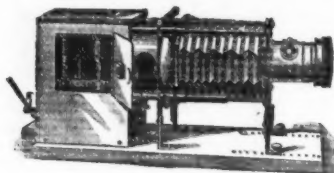
CENTRE.	LECTURER.	SUBJECT.	DATES OF LECTURES.
Association Local, 15th & Chestnut sts.	Joseph French Johnson	The Principles of Money Applied to Current Problems	Oct. 7, 14, 21, 28, 31.
Association Local, 15th & Chestnut sts.	Clarence G. Child . . .	Literature of the Seventeenth Century	Nov. 11, 18, 25, Dec. 2, 9, 16.
Bainbridge Street . . . Church of the Crucifixion, Eighth and Bainbridge sts.	Thomas W. Surette . .	Development of Music	Nov. 4, 11, 18, 25, Dec. 2, 9, 16.
College Settlement, 617 St. Mary st.	Thomas W. Surette . .	Development of Music	Nov. 5, 12, 19, 26, Dec. 3, 10.
Germantown	William H. Goodyear .	Italian Art and Paintings of the Old Masters	Oct. 30, Nov. 6, 13, 27, Dec. 4, 11, 18.
Kensington	Thomas W. Surette . .	Development of Music	Oct. 2, 9, 16, 23, 30, Nov. 6.
West Park	William H. Goodyear .	Debt of the Nineteenth Century to Egypt	Nov. 9, 16, 23, 30, Dec. 7, 14.
41st & Westminster av. West Philadelphia . . .	E. D. Warfield	Development of the United States.	Nov. 16, 30, Dec. 14, Jan. 4, 18, Feb. 1.

CENTRES OUT OF PHILADELPHIA.

CENTRE.	LECTURER.	SUBJECT.	DATES OF LECTURES.
Camden, N. J.	William H. Goodyear .	Italian Art and Paintings of the Old Masters	Oct. 5, 12, 19, 26, Nov. 2, 14, 21, 28.
Concord, Mass.	John H. Wright	Every-Day Religion of the Greeks	Oct. 7, 14, 21, 28, Nov. 4, 11.
Cumberland, Md. . . .	Thomas W. Surette . .	Development of Music	Oct. 27, Nov. 3, 10, 17, 24, Dec. 1.
Elizabeth, N. J.	Edward T. Devine . . .	Representative Americans	Nov. 5, 12, 19, 26, Dec. 3, 10.
Elkton, Md.	Henry W. Elson	The Great Republic in its Youth	Nov. 16, 23, 30, Dec. 7, 14, 21.
Franklin	J. H. Pillsbury	Geology	Nov. 10, 17, 24, Dec. 1, 8, 15.
Haddonfield, N. J. . . .	E. P. Cheyney	Geology	Nov. 17, 24, Dec. 1, 8, 15, 22.
Johnstown	J. H. Pillsbury	Development of Music	Nov. 13, 20, 27, Dec. 4, 11, 18.
Lebanon	Thomas W. Surette . .	Shakespeare	Oct. 22, 29, Nov. 5, 12, 19, 26.
Lock Haven	Homer B. Sprague . . .	Political Economy	Nov. 19, Dec. 3, 17, 31, 1896. Jan. 14, 28, 1897.
Media	Robert E. Thompson . .	Geology	Nov. 11, 18, 25, Dec. 2, 9, 16.
Pittsburg	Joseph French Johnson	The Principles of Money Applied to Current Problems	Oct. 5, 12, 19, 26, 27.
Pittsburg	B. C. Jillson	Geology	Nov. 9, 16, 20, 30, Dec. 7, 14.
Riverton, N. J.	Albert H. Smyth	English Literature	Oct. 1, 8, 15, 22, 29, Nov. 5.
Sharon	John W. Perrin	France in the Nineteenth Century	Oct. 6, 20, Nov. 3, 17, Dec. 1, 15.
West Chester	William H. Goodyear .	Debt of the Nineteenth Century to Egypt	Nov. 5, 12, 26, Dec. 3, 10, 17.
York	J. H. Pillsbury	Geology	Nov. 9, 16, 23, 30, Dec. 7, 14.

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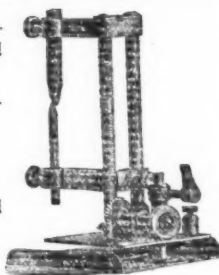
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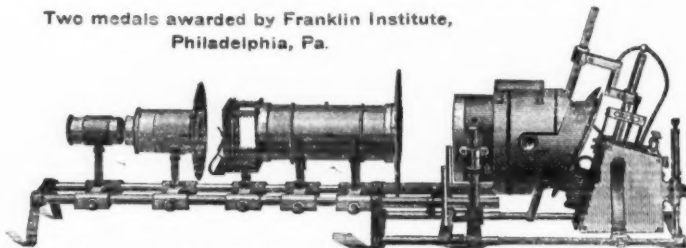
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